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Objectives were: to utilize the working materials created during the previous year, to explore the need for a set of resource materials directed toward helping the classroom teacher gain knowledge and skills to help in the teaching of social science, to field-test the resource materials in elementary schools, to develop and test teacher orientation and inservice education, to analyze the data from the previous year's study of cross-age educational efforts, to carry forward in a summer day-camp skills and attitudes of children toward others who are younger or older, to develop proposals for basic research.

Teachers were oriented and a series of inservice sessions were held. Units were then taught by these 18 classroom teachers in 3 Michigan schools. In the summer of 1963, a day camp was held at Bethel, Maine, where experimentation with cross age relationships took place. Time seemed to be a problem with the teachers, as was their knowledge and attitudes toward the content area of social science. Children involved were not fully prepared to utilize skills that were necessary in the learning of the unit. The vocabulary was new to many and they were sometimes bored. It is suggested that small groups be used for the study.

The cross-age work used children from kindergarten through 6th grade. The older ones helped the younger ones with projects and personal relationships. Reports on many children and their interaction with others are given in detail, for example a sixth grader helped a slow fourth grader to read. The results were favorable and a good rapport existed between most of the children.

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Teaching of Social Science Material in the Elementary School

COOPERATIVE RESEARCH PROJECT NO. E-011

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RONALD LIPPITT
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In collaboration with

MARIE BASALONE
PEGGY LIPPITT
PATRICIA SCHMUCK

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THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN
ANN ARBOR, MICHIGAN

June 1964

TEACHING OF SOCIAL SCIENCE MATERIAL IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

by

Robert S. Fox
Ronald Lippitt
John E. Lohman

In Collaboration With

Marie Basalone
Peggy Lippitt
Patricia Schmuck

A Report on
Cooperative Research Project #E-011
United States Office of Education
Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

June, 1964

PREFACE

The primary objective of this pilot project has been to check the feasibility and to lay the groundwork for more extensive development of curriculum methods and materials for the teaching of certain aspects of the social sciences in elementary schools. A second developmental objective has been to explore some aspects of the phenomena of cross-age relationships. This is a progress report in the sense that the activities and findings here reported are already out of date, and are serving at this time as the basis for further developmental work. Nonetheless, it seems wise to report these efforts as a bench mark, for the major conclusion from this project has been that both social science education for the elementary grades and the study of cross-age relationships are projects highly deserving of the attention of the social scientists and the educator.

This project has been conducted under a developmental grant from the Cooperative Research Branch of the U. S. Office of Education (Project #E-011) covering the period June, 1963 through February, 1964. Robert S. Fox and Ronald Lippitt were principal investigators. John E. Lohman served as field social scientist and research assistant. Mrs. Peggy Lippitt and Mrs. Patricia Schmuck were demonstration teachers and coordinators of inservice training activities. Marie Basalone, Shearon Dudley and Mrs. Anita Lohman were assistants in research. Mrs. Josephine Brokaw, serving as curriculum materials assistant during the summer, was also principal of the Mack School in which a number of the participating teachers worked. George Sproule served as documentation specialist with the project and collaborated with Irvine Millgate, President of Impcommation Corporation, of New York in photographing and recording and producing audio-visual documentation materials.

Particular thanks are due to the many classroom teachers (whose names are listed in Chapter II of the report), whose collaboration was an essential part of the project. The facilitating efforts of the principals of Holmes School in Willow Run, Mr. Glenn Spurlock, and The University School in Ann Arbor, Dr. William Mills, as well as those of Mrs. Brokaw, were most supportive.

Special thanks are due the secretaries who helped to type and process this report--Mrs. Karen Donahue and Miss Karen Bergemann.

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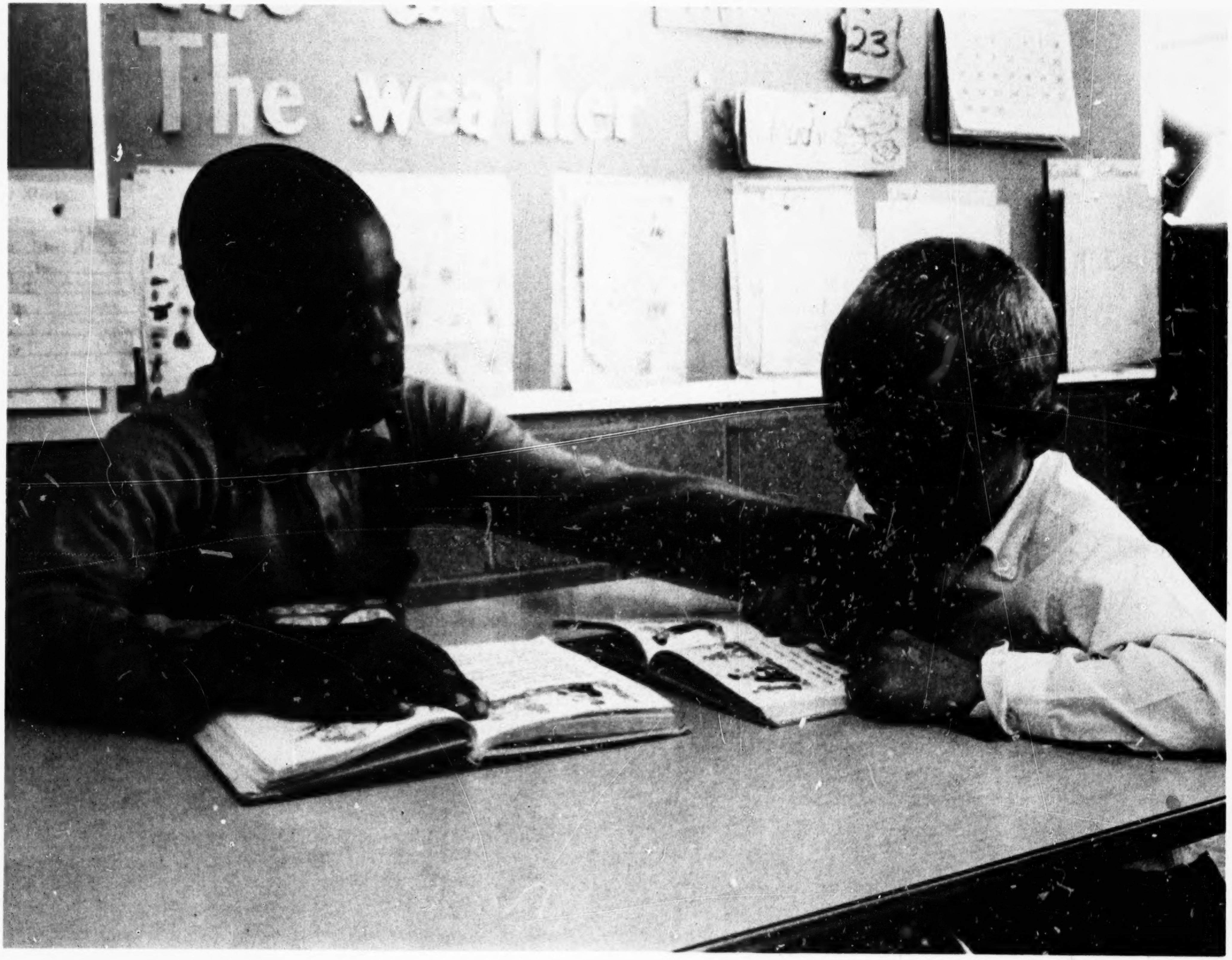
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CHAPTER I

THE NEED FOR SOCIAL SCIENCE EDUCATION

Learning through active participation in inquiry has become an increasingly important aspect of biological and physical science education for elementary and secondary school pupils. Children have an opportunity for direct experience with real life phenomena--objects and processes similar to those studied by the research scientist. Even more important, they learn to apply, in simple ways, the elements of scientific method, the tools and designs of systematic inquiry. The pupil is helped in the early years of school to develop an image of what the scientists do, what kinds of scientists there are, and how one can pursue the quest for answers to one's curiosity about the world of things and organisms.

But the term "social science" or "behavioral science" rarely enters the vocabulary of instruction during these early years of schooling. "Social studies" with its emphasis on cultural heritage, citizenship, and geography has not focused on the scientific study of human behavior, nor on the activities of social scientists.

It seems particularly important that scientific education about human behavior and human relations should begin early. The young ones should have an opportunity to develop accurate images of who the social scientists are, and what they do, just as they develop comparable images of physical and biological scientists. Of even greater importance is the fact that the solution of many of today's critical problems of teaching and learning depends on the learner's understanding and internalization of certain basic facts about motivation, learning, individual differences, human development, bases of irrationality and personal defensiveness, and the dynamics of group problem solving. The young child, immersed in a complex social culture, constantly required to interact wisely with his classmates, his older or younger siblings, his parents, teacher, and other adults, has a pressing need to develop an understanding of social processes and to perfect appropriate interpersonal skills. This need has not been systematically dealt with by the school curriculum.

Increasing concern for revision and improvement of the social studies curriculum is being expressed both by curriculum specialists and scientists from the various social science fields. Knowledge in the behavioral sciences has increased extensively in the past quarter-century, as has knowledge in the physical sciences. But little change has occurred in the teaching of the social studies, either at the elementary or secondary school levels. High school social studies curricula are still dominated by history and are restricted to a review of subject matter through verbal techniques. Elementary programs, while more generally utilizing experience units and the school classroom as a laboratory for social learning, have, nevertheless been only superficially concerned with the broad range of the behavioral sciences. Unlike recent attempts in the physical sciences curriculum revision programs, the social studies have generally failed to develop in the student an appreciation of the method of scientific problem solving or to provide opportunities for creating or utilizing the skills and tools of scientific activity. Basic concepts from economics, sociology, political science, anthropology, and psychology have been thought too complex for the precollege age child, even though he is immersed in an environment which daily presents him with phenomena relevant to all of these fields.

More specifically, it appears that the current social studies program is characterized by the following shortcomings:

1. History dominates; emphasis is on the past rather than on the contemporary world; on the culture of Western countries and the United States, rather than on the full range of world cultures. Certainly history is a core subject, but more balance is needed.

2. Emphasis is on description and memorization of facts and concepts rather than on the reflective understanding and use of concepts, and the creative use of scientific method in exploring social processes.

3. Learning sequences which integrate conceptual, emotional, and behavioral learning are largely unexplored or are unsupported with adequate resource materials.

4. Attention to the "socialization" or behavioral aspects of the social studies has been primarily "extra curricular," with little focus on systematic development of content or skills in this area.

5. Interrelationships between the social sciences have not been explored sufficiently, nor are they reflected in the social studies curriculum.

6. Current curriculum revision efforts in the social studies appear to be moving toward greater rigidity (more required courses, focus on developing _a_ sequence) rather than on exploring a variety of patterns.

7. Relatively little use of the "laboratory" method of learning has been made in social science education, as contrasted to the physical and biological sciences.

In view of these problems, the following assumptions, upon which we are basing our particular approach to curriculum development, may be understood:

1. It is fully as important to teach the young student applications of scientific methodology to the study and understanding of human phenomena as it is to the study of biological and physical phenomena.

2. There is a need to include in the social studies curriculum materials on human behavior and motivation, social interaction, and group behavior. To complement the traditional offerings in history, geography, and social problems there should be curriculum opportunities from such fields as psycho-social development, interpersonal relations, social interaction, and the behavior of small groups (i.e., psychology, social psychology, microsociology, and anthropology). These very rapidly developing fields of scientific knowledge and specialization are highly relevant to general education, and to the scientific training and personal development of the student.

3. Some of the learnings in these areas of subject matter have general relevance to the effectiveness of the students' learning activities in all areas of knowledge (e.g., such topics as conformity behavior, how we learn, intergenerational relations, group decision-making).

4. It is particularly important in the social sciences, as contrasted with the physical sciences, to help the child distinguish between the objective analysis and interpretation of phenomena, and the making of value judgments about the phenomena.

5. Selecting the concepts and generalizations to teach from these areas of the behavioral sciences requires the development and use of criteria for selecting concepts and theories which have (a) _core significance_ in these disciplines, and (b) at the same time have _meaningful relevance_ to the student's current experience, interests, and level of development.

6. The units which are developed for use in this process of curriculum revision and supplementation need to be flexible units that can be fitted into a wide variety of curriculum sequences and adaptable to various age levels.

7. We must strike a balance between diffuse "interdisciplinary matter" and narrow specialization of the selected content to be taught.

8. Resource materials on content and procedure for the teacher and the students should be well structured, while, at the same time, open to adaptation by the teacher and to creative involvement by the students.

At the present stage of development of the social studies curriculum we believe a variety of patterns of utilization of social science content are likely to evolve.

At the elementary school level some teachers and school systems are likely to add a few units of social science to the current social studies curriculum. Whether the teachers can feel comfortable with teaching them will be a major factor in determing whether this experimentation continues and expands. In other schools the idea that this is science education will be seen as the key fact. This orientation is more likely to lead to a more basic curriculum revision, with more careful planning of a new continuity of social science education.

At the secondary school level the difficult questions will be--whether some of the current emphasis on history and social problems should be changed to include new offerings from the behavioral sciences, and whether these new offerings should be discipline-focused or multidisciplinary, or some effort at a problem focus that will integrate the resources of the various disciplines.

Our own work at the elementary level to date has led us to conclude that it is important to develop a focus on certain "core phenomena" that have been the object of study by psychologists, social psychologists, and sociologists, as the basis for the learning of concepts and methods of the different disciplines. In our work to date we have been exploring the idea that one cluster of disciplines for curriculum integration in this manner would be psychology, social psychology, and micro-sociology; another cluster would focus around economics, macro-sociology, and geography; and a third would have political science as core with aspects of sociology, geography, and history. We are exploring the idea that anthropology would contribute a comparative perspective as a learning resource in all the clusters.

In relating the core phenomena for study in the pilot units we have been developing, we have used the following criteria:

The first criterion is that the focus will be on some interpersonal phenomenon or intrapersonal process which has core significance as a focus for study by the scientist and at the same time has salience in the lives of the classroom learners.

A second principle is that the behavioral contexts chosen for study will be an existential part of the lifespace of the learners.

A third principle is that we will always have a double focus on human behavior as content and on scientific method as content.

With these principles in mind the units already taught on a pilot basis, or planned are:

A. Units with Self, and Self-Others as Focus

1. Angry feelings (frustration-aggression, etc.)
2. Friendly feelings (reciprocation of trust, positive feedback, etc.)
3. Growing up (phases of personal development, perspective on maturity)
4. Deciding and acting (passivity and initiative; decision making; goals and commitment, etc.)
5. Learning new things

B. Units With Social Psychology and Socialization Process as Focus

6. Relations between olders and youngers (i.e., cross-age sib and peer relations) (e.g., teasing, scapegoating, nurturing, helping, etc.)
7. Relations between like age peers (e.g., cooperative-competitive, resource exchange, etc.)
8. Relations between boys and girls (e.g., sex role differences, complementary resources and functions, collaboration vs. avoidance, etc.)
9. Relations between grownups and children (e.g., learner role with teacher, parents, patterns of avoidance, alienation, dependence, collaboration, etc.)
10. Being a part of many groups and relationships (e.g., the multiple loyalty situation, patterns of coping, etc.)

C. Units with Sociological Emphasis

11. People and groups different from ourselves (e.g., stereotypes, scapegoating, resource potential, etc.)
12. Getting work done in groups (e.g., leadership, membership, goal setting, evaluation)
13. Social conformity pressures and individuality

We plan to subject these selections to the analysis of a multidisciplinary panel of colleagues for critical review before moving beyond the developmental stage.

We are clearly in the early stages of what became an active ferment of revision of the social studies and experimentation with social science education. We have found the following publications helpful in our thinking.

There have been three recent summaries of research on the teaching of social studies. All three confirm our conclusion that there is an absence of work in the particular area of social science on which we are focusing (psychology, social psychology, and sociology). The work on human relations education and mental health education has emphasized personal problem solving and value education rather than scientific method and analytic inquiry. These three summaries are:

1. Gross, R. E. and Badger, W. V. Social Studies. In C. W. Harris (Ed.) Encyclopedia of Educational Research (3rd Ed.) N. Y., Macmillan, 1960, 1296-1319.
2. Metcalf, Lawrence. Research on teaching the social studies. In N. L. Gage (Ed.) Handbook of Research on Teaching. Chicago. Rand McNally, 1963, 929-965.
3. McLendon; J. C. Teaching social studies. Washington, D.C. American Education Research Association, N.E.A., 1960.

None of these reviews reveals any major trend toward the systematic inclusion of behavioral science theory and recent knowledge in the social studies curriculum, nor any trend toward defining "inter-disciplinary clusters" that might make natural units of integrated course content or of learning sequences. And underlying most of the studies seems to be the assumption that conceptual learning or congnitive mastery are the major criteria of successful teaching of the social sciences to the young pupils.

A convenient perspective on some of the recent creative work or curriculum improvement in the physical and biological sciences, and mathematics is present in:

4. Assn. for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Using Current Curriculum Developments. Washington, D.C., ASCD, NEA, 1963.

Another important aspect of our program of work is the crucial area of inservice teacher training and the introduction of teaching innovations. Several of our own staff have focused on this area, as indicated by such recent publications as:

5. Fox, R. and Lippitt, R. The innovation of classroom practices. In M. Miles (Ed.) Innovation in Education. N.Y. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1963.

6. Fox, R. and Schmuck, R. Classroom Study Tools for Improving Classroom Learning Atmospheres, Ann Arbor, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, No. 13, Document Series, 1963.

7. Kaufman, M., Lippitt, R. and Schmuck, R. Creative Practices Developed by Teachers for Improving Classroom Learning, Ann Arbor. Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, No. 84, Document Series, 1963.

8. Lippitt, R., Watson, J., and Westley, B. The Dynamics of Change. N.Y., Harcourt Brace, 1958.

9. National Society for the Study of Education. In-service Education. 55th Yearbook. Chicago, University of Chicago, 1957.

10. National Commission on Teacher Education. The Improvement of Teaching. Washington, D.C., NEA, 1947.

In doing preparatory thinking about the pilot work in secondary education the staff has been very stimulated by:

11. McKeachie, W. J. Psychological Content in High School Social Studies. University of Michigan, mimeographed, 1963.

12. Brim, Orville. Socialization Through the Life Cycle. N.Y. Russell Sage Foundation, 1963, a paper prepared for SSAC Conference on socialization.

This latter paper provides an example of cross-disciplinary integration of concepts when focusing on the phenomena of socialization and development which would be a major focus of our work with secondary students.

CHAPTER II

AN EXPLORATORY PROJECT IN TEACHING SOCIAL SCIENCE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Curriculum improvement projects may be initiated in a great variety of ways. Faculty committees, central curricular services offices, individual classroom teachers, text book writers, committees of national professional organizations, each may take some initiative or make some contribution to the process. While the pendulum has swung between the extremes of focusing major responsibility on the experts in substantive areas--the scientist and the scholars, to placing it largely in the hands of the practitioners--the school administrators, curriculum supervisors, and the classroom teachers, there is increasing attention being given toward involving *both* the scholar and the teacher, the researcher and the practitioner in a cooperative working relationship that utilizes the competence of each.

Such a team of social scientists and educators has been evolving at The University of Michigan. Core members have represented competencies in the fields of social psychology, psychology, curriculum, and educational administration. Additional staff members who have been drawn in as needed have been classroom teachers, sociologists, school psychologists, and curriculum supervisors.

Over a period of years this team has engaged in basic research projects having to do with the socially ineffective child in the classroom, pupil-teacher interaction, peer standards and group pressures in relation to classroom learning, and the identification and diffusion of teaching innovations.

It has also become involved in efforts to apply the findings of research to the improvement of classroom practices. Teachers have been helped to diagnose the mental health climate of their classrooms and to develop plans for improving the climate. Pupils with low social power have been helped to develop new skills and greater sensitivity to the effects of their actions. School systems have been assisted in identifying creative teaching practices and in supporting the efforts of other teachers to adapt or adopt these practices.

Exploratory work in teaching social science to young children

During the school years 1960-1962, one member of the team worked as a teacher of a group of four-year-olds in the nursery of the University Elementary School in Ann Arbor. Effort was made to help these youngsters to become more sensitive to the effects of their own behavior on others and to understand better the reasons for these consequences. "Town meetings" of the total group provided opportunity for the children to raise problems, to check perceptions, and to discuss alternative behaviors. Samll groups of three or four met with the teacher to pursue the discussion further and, through role-playing, to work on skills that would enable them to handle their interpersonal problems more effectively. More specifically, Jr. Kindergarteners worked on interpersonal skills in such ways as the following:

(1) A town meeting discussion was held on why we have rules; who makes rules; who benefits from rules. As a result, when one four-and-one-half-year-old hurt herself playing "roughly" in the big indoor playroom the first thing she said when her tears were dry was, "I'm going to suggest making a rule about playing 'quietly' in the playroom."

(2) An endeavor to give a high status child an opportunity to initiate leadership, which he had continuously refused to take, was made by casting him in a role-playing story where he was a cowboy who needed to ask his neighbors for help in fixing his broken fences. This gave him practice in voicing ideas that were positively responded to. He was able to carry over initiating activity in subsequent group play in regular class room life.

(3) Another role-playing skill session included ideas of how members of the Jr. Kindergarten class could make a child who had not been very well liked and who had been out ill for two months feel welcome without having to sacrifice doing what they wanted to do in order to make her feel at home. As a result of this several high status children went out of their way to be helpful to this child when she came back and the child who had been ill behaved in a much more constructive way than she had previously because of this inclusion.

Further support for these children was sought by involving sixth grade children as classroom helpers. Sixth graders were not merely recruited to spend time in the nursery, however. They were given training. A "seminar", involving half of the sixth grade class each semester, was instituted, during which principles of child psychology and pedagogy were presented and discussed. Then, in teams of two or three at a time, the older children were involved in the nursery program, observing the activities of the children, assisting them with equipment and materials, and intervening in the interaction when needed. During the course of the year, each sixth grader had several opportunities to work in the nursery.

The following year (1962-63) some of the social science content which had been covered by the sixth graders in their seminars and by the four-year-olds in their town meetings was organized for more systematic teaching. A demonstration teacher, assisted by the regular classroom teacher, worked regularly in the sixth and fourth grade classrooms of the University School and Holmes School of the Willow Run School system located in a bi-racial, lower class neighborhood. Pilot resource materials were developed and the units taught, utilizing some of the techniques described in greater detail in the next chapter.

The six units which were tried during that year include:

(1) Relations between children and grownups

(2) Relations between younger and older children

(3) Angry feelings

(4) Interpersonal communication

(5) Working in groups

(6) Group standards and institutional rules--how and why

One of the first units was on "Relations between younger and older children." A part of the design for teaching this unit was an arrangement for the sixth graders to be trained and then utilized in teaching the materials to fourth graders. They assisted in presenting behavior incidents for study by the younger children, helped committees of observers organize their reports, and conducted small group discussions. Later the sixth and fourth graders were also involved in helping the second grade in studying a social science unit, and the sixth graders helped the third and first graders and the kindergarteners in "academic" work--paired work on reading vocabulary, listening to oral reading, conducting arithmetic drill, assisting in selection of books, providing enrichment in reading and arithmetic for advanced fourth graders, helping with basketball shooting skills. The tasks were usually planned by the teacher of the younger group and she conducted special training or briefing sessions for the older helpers prior to their actual work with children.

During 1962-63 major responsibilities were placed in the hands of a demonstration teacher who worked directly with the children, conducting class sessions approximately twice a week, and meeting with the classroom teachers once each week. The project staff, composed of a social psychologist, a curriculum specialist, and a psychologist also met weekly with the demonstration teacher and her research assistant to review the classroom activities of the preceding week, to assist in the development of new materials and resources, and to evaluate the progress of the program.

Classrooms in which work was carried on included the following:

University School, Ann Arbor

Mr. David Lowe	6th grade	Social science teaching
Mrs. Shirley Spaniel	4th grade	Social science teaching
Mrs. Mildred Vescolani	2nd grade	Used as laboratories for the 4th and 6th graders
Miss Ann Kloian	Nursery	

Holmes School, Willow Run

Mrs. Lelia Riley	6th grade	Social science teaching
Mrs. Jouny Cheney	6th grade	Control
Mrs. Aileen Brown	4th grade	Social science teaching
Mrs. Beverly Isreal	4th grade	Control
Mrs. Lee Palmer	3rd grade	Used as laboratories for the 4th and 6th graders
Mrs. Ilene Weiss	1st grade	

The research design for the year's project called for data gathering around the initial attitudes of olders toward youngers, and of youngers toward olders, what characteristics of the older were valued and "modelled"; and the effect of the project on pupils' attitudes toward school, their acceptance by classmates, and on their feelings about association with younger or older peers. Control classrooms at the 4th and 6th grade levels were included at the Holmes School.

Work covered by the present report began at the close of the school year, 1962-63, extended into a summer day camp setting at Bethel, Maine, and returned to a more intensive period of development and field testing of several social science units in new classrooms in the Fall of 1963.

Objectives of the project

A small grant for developmental work was obtained from the Cooperative Research Branch of the U.S. Office of Education, covering the nine-month period from June 1, 1963 through February 28, 1964. Principal objectives included the following:

(1) To utilize the working materials created during the previous year in writing two resource units for the teaching of social science in the elementary grades.

The areas selected for the two units were: "Angry Feelings," and "Relations between Younger and Older Children."

(2) To explore the need for a set of resource materials directed toward helping the classroom teacher gain the knowledge and skills needed to engage successfully in this approach to the teaching of social science.

(3) To field test the resource materials in elementary school classrooms at various grade levels, placing major responsibility for teaching with the classroom teacher, rather than with a demonstration teacher.

(4) To develop and test teacher orientation and inservice education approaches and materials.

(5) To analyze the data and summarize findings from the previous year's study of cross-age educational efforts.

(6) To carry forward in a summer day camp setting additional experimental efforts in developing attitudes and skills in children of different age levels toward their relationships with others who are older or younger.

(7) To develop as a result of these exploratory efforts, proposals for basic research and for curriculum development projects to be submitted to the Cooperative Research Branch, which will deal in a more comprehensive way with the problems of teaching social science in the elementary school, and with the phenomenon of cross-age interaction as part of the socialization and educational process.

Procedures utilized.

The development of the approach to the teaching of social science to elementary children described in this report occurred largely in school classrooms with children and their teachers involved.

During the year 1963-64, building on the experience and the resource materials developed the preceding year, major responsibility was placed in the hands of the classroom teachers. The project staff was concerned with inservice education activities. An orientation session for all teachers in a building was designed, presented, and evaluated. Subsequently a series of inservice sessions for those teachers continuing with the social science project was planned and implemented. Classroom teachers then undertook to teach one or more units in their own classrooms. Weekly consultation was available to them in their school building.

Teachers were encouraged to share with the staff their reactions and suggestions as they carried forward the teaching activities. Important modifications of the resource materials resulted.

The teachers involved during this second year were different from those of the first year, with three exceptions:

University School, Ann Arbor

Mrs. Penney Osadchuk	3rd grade
Mrs. Shirley Walton	2nd grade
Mrs. Patricia Pudduck	Kindergarten

Holmes School, Willow Run

Mrs. Natalie Sinanian	6th grade	Mrs. Sandra Hafer	4th grade
Mrs. Patricia Moorehead	5th grade	Mrs. Mae Ava Carse	3rd grade
*Mrs. Lelia Riley	5th grade	Mrs. Judith Hollinshead	3rd grade
*Mrs. Aileen Brown	4th grade	*Mrs. Lee Palmer	2nd grade
Mrs. Margaret Leidholm	4th grade		

Mack School, Ann Arbor

Mrs. Gladys Morgan	6th grade	Mrs. Mary Jo Heck	2nd grade
Mrs. Lucy McNaughton	4th grade	Mrs. Doris Stodel	1st grade
Miss Nancy Neale	3rd grade	Mrs. Carrie Venema	Kindergarten

(*involved in 1962-63 and in 1963-64)

With regard to data gathering about cross-age phenomena, all ten classrooms in the first year (1962-63) were involved. Initial administration of the instruments occurred during the late Fall. During the Winter and Spring months the unit on olders and youngers was taught in sixth and fourth grade classrooms, followed by "field work" by the olders in classrooms of the fourth, second, and first grades and kindergarten. In late Spring, a second set of instruments was administered.

During the summer of 1963, at a day camp in Bethel, Maine, held in connection with the National Training Laboratories, additional experimentation with cross-age relationships took place. Emphasis was placed upon giving the children skills practice--help in actually using the new techniques for relating to those children who were of different age levels.

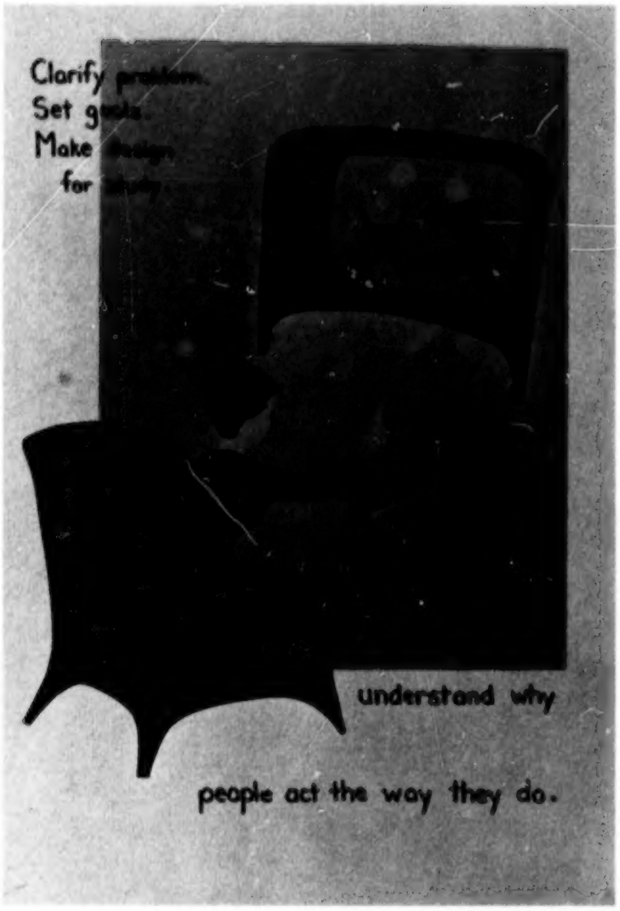
Thus, over a two year period, activities focussed on the development and testing of an approach to the scientific study of human behavior were carried on in twenty-eight school classrooms and in a summer day camp. Simultaneously, data were gethered about the nature of relations between children of different age levels, and some experimental procedures for utilizing these cross-age interactions for educational purposes were undertaken.

In subsequent chapters of this report there will be described in greater detail the activities and the results of these various phases of this pilot project. In Chapter III, our basic approach to teaching of social science by the laboratory method as it has evolved so far, is elaborated. An illustration from one of the classrooms of how it developed with a group of children is given. The following chapter reports some preliminary efforts at in-service education of teachers so that they may be oriented to this social science curriculum project, and may be helped to gain the techniques and understandings needed to teach it skillfully and with some security.

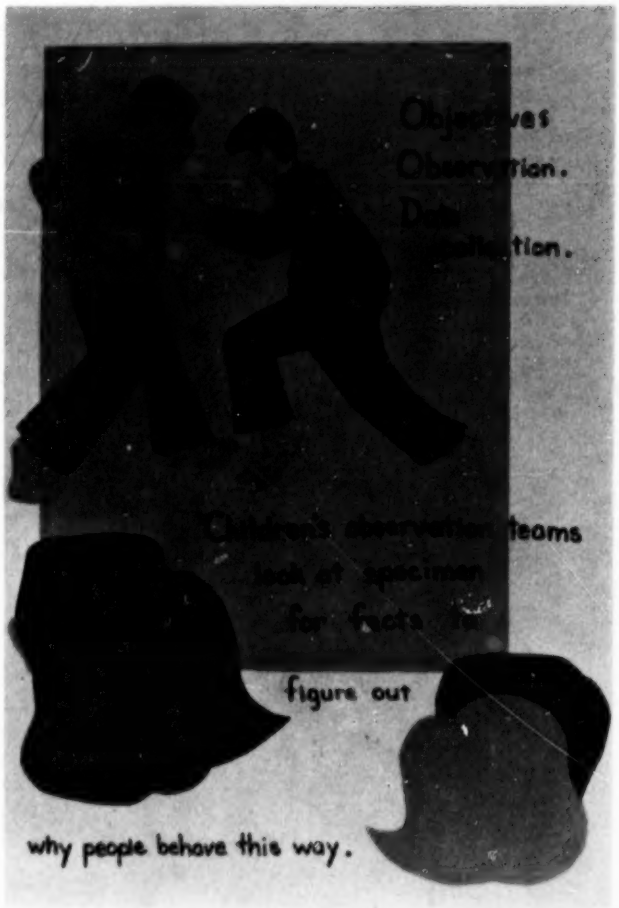
Chapters V and VI deal with our more specific interest in the cross-age relationship phenomenon. The first of these chapters describes two efforts to work with groups of children in modifying their understanding of and behavior toward peers who are older or younger than they are. The second reports the results of some exploratory research on the perceptions, relations, and influence processes between children of different chronological and developmental levels.

A final chapter outlines some of our plans for future work building upon the exploratory efforts of this pilot project.

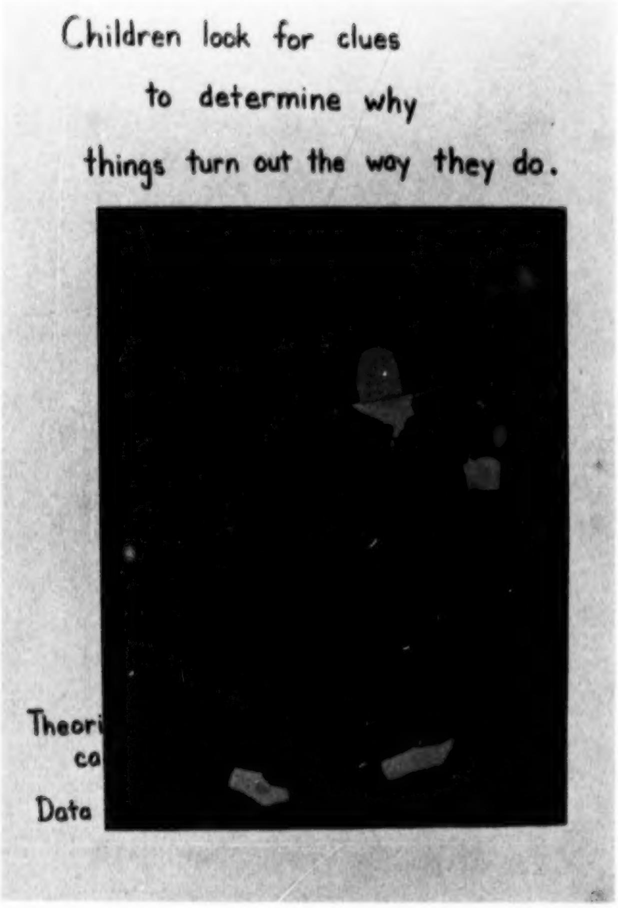
ILLUSTRATION OF THE PRINCIPAL PHASES OF A UNIT


Clarify problem.
Set goals.
Make design
for study.
understand why
people act the way they do.

1


Objectives
Observation.
Data
collection.
Children's observation teams
look at specimen
for facts to
figure out
why people behave this way.

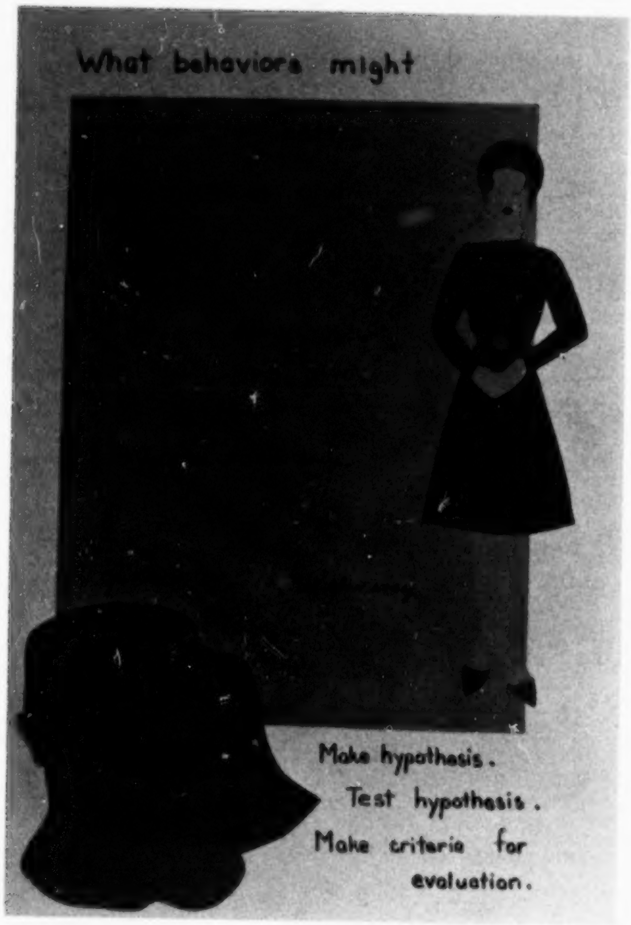
2


Children look for clues
to determine why
things turn out the way they do.
Theori
ca
Data

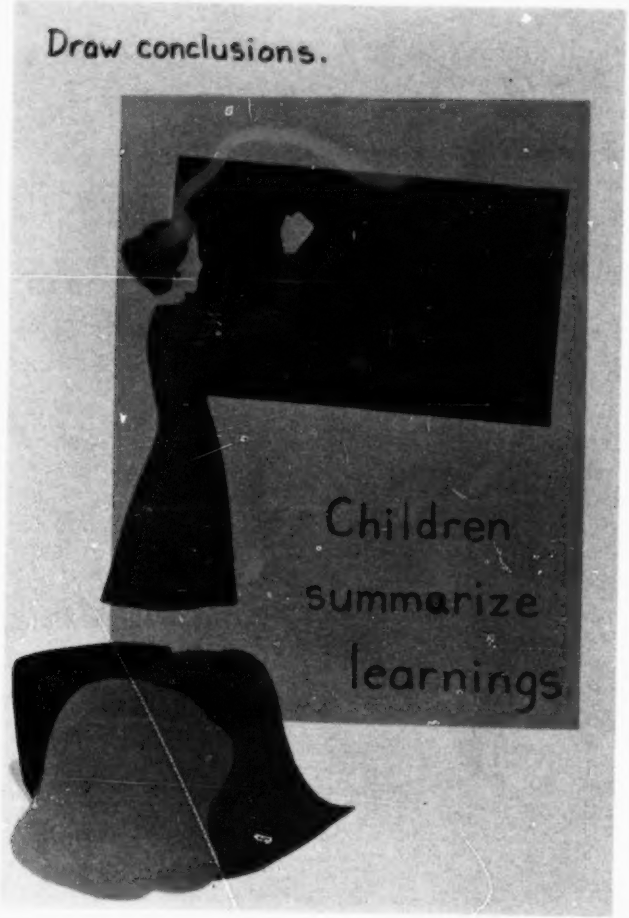
3

Theories about causation
Children try to
understand
why things happen.

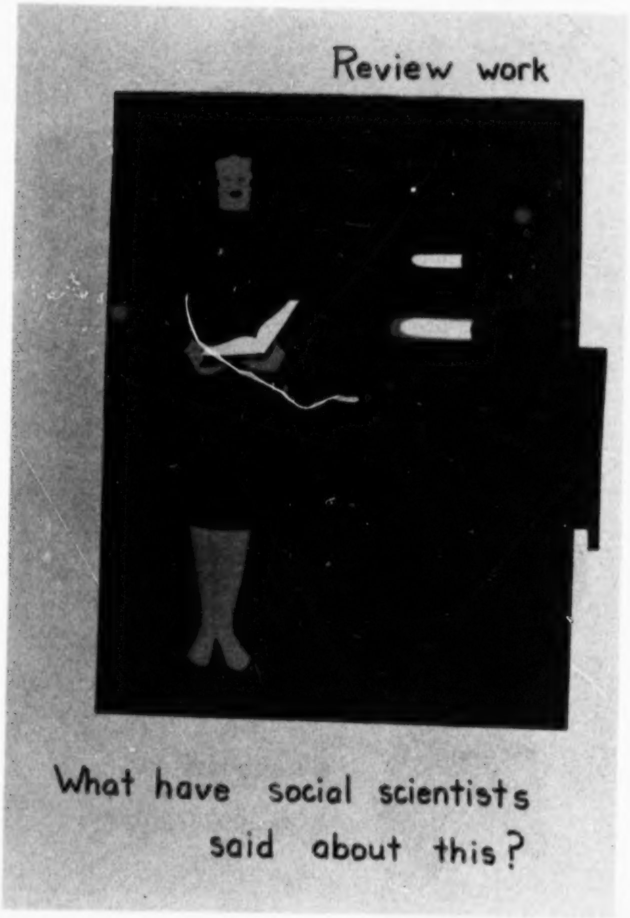
4


What behaviors might
Make hypothesis.
Test hypothesis.
Make criteria for
evaluation.

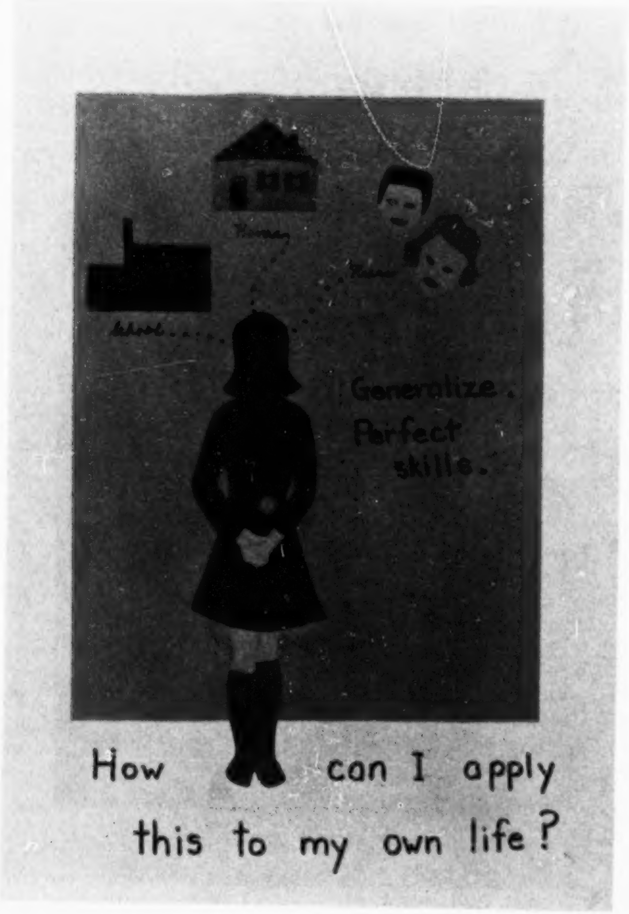
5


Draw conclusions.
Children
summarize
learnings

6


Review work
What have social scientists
said about this?

7


Generalize.
Perfect
skills.
How can I apply
this to my own life?

8

CHAPTER III

A BASIC APPROACH TO THE TEACHING OF SOCIAL SCIENCE

The elementary school social studies program has made considerable use of activities units--projects organized around a problem or a major topic. Pupils have been involved in a great variety of reading, writing, acting, observing, and sharing activities. From these they have learned a good deal of information, have formulated some attitudes, and have improved a variety of skills.

In addition, teachers have been concerned with managing the classroom so that pupils live and learn together harmoniously. When behavior problems arise, they have been handled by teacher exposition of a more acceptable model of behavior and/or the imposition of controls. Relatively little emphasis has been given, however, to the scientific study of human behavior as a part of the curriculum.

The Scientific Approach

The scientist works on a problem by observing the phenomenon, formulating hypotheses, gathering data, analyzing it and drawing conclusions, and testing these findings against reality in a variety of other settings. In the social sciences the same general procedures are used, even though the study of human behavior presents some complications. A greater range of variables may be present, and the need to deal with samples from the more extended variety of behavior, complicates nearly all social science investigation.

Nonetheless, it is our proposition that elementary school children can and should utilize the methods of the social scientist so that they may not only develop their own skills in examining and solving social or interpersonal problems, but so they can appreciate more fully the findings and contributions of the sociologist, the anthropologist, the psychologist, and other social scientists.

Phases of a Unit

So that this laboratory approach to learning about human behavior may be implemented in the elementary school classroom a systematic plan for dealing with a problem has been devised. Eleven phases or stages are proposed, which serve as a framework upon which a meaningful sequence of activities can be organized. These phases have served, also, as the basis for organizing the teacher resource materials (see copy of teacher resource unit on "Relations between Older and Younger Children" in the Appendix).

Phase 1: Warming up to the topic.

> The problem area is identified. Pupils explore its relevance to their own concerns. Examples from personal experience are cited.

Phase 2: Developing a behavior specimen for study.

> As the physical scientist isolates a limited portion of the world about him to study in detail within his laboratory, so the teacher and her pupils may prepare and present a specimen of behavior which sharply presents the phenomenon or problem to be studied. It takes the form of a brief role-playing episode.
> In addition, plans are laid for the collection of data from the presentation. Data collection tools are prepared; data collection tasks are assigned.

Phase 3: Collecting data.

> The role-playing episode is presented. The interaction is observed; participants in the episode are interviewed to obtain additional data and to check the validity of the observers' inferences.

Phase 4: Analyzing data.

> Data collection teams organize their findings and present their data to the class. The findings presented by various groups are summarized.

Phase 5: Interpreting causal dynamics.

> Causes for behavior are explored. Through class discussion a "theory" for the behavior is developed.

Phase 6: Evaluating consequences.

> Objective data collection and analysis are kept separate from the placing of value upon them. In this phase opportunity is provided for children to propose and defend their judgments as to the desirability or undesirability of the consequences produced in the behavior episode. Alternative consequences judged to be more desirable are proposed.

Phase 7: Experimenting with alternative causal sequences.

> Hypotheses about alternative behavioral sequences which would result in more desirable consequences are developed. These alternative sequences are tried out, possibly through additional role-playing. Results are evaluated.

Phase 8: Summarizing learnings

> Children and teacher draw conclusions from the study of the behavior they have produced and examined. Generalizations are listed.

Phase 9: Utilizing social science resources

> Question is raised as to how social scientists have studied these same questions. The research is examined (in a form re-written to the child's level), and the relationship of the findings reported in the research to the findings of the children through their classroom exploration, is explored.

Phase 10: Exploring relevance of classroom discoveries to other life situations

> Here problems of application and transfer are explored. Pupils may illustrate these application situations by anecdote and role-playing episodes. They may go forth to the playground, to the student council, or to other classes as laboratories for the application of generalizations. When possible, field work is facilitated by the teacher; follow-up activities are important.

Phase 11: Evaluating the unit.

> The teacher gathers data about the changes of the pupils relative to the objectives of the unit. Major emphasis is upon the evaluation of progress toward becoming more scientific in dealing with problems of human relationships. Evaluation findings are discussed by the class.

This framework for the teaching of a unit has been utilized for the various topics explored so far. Its usefulness for children at different age levels is being examined; and the extent to which flexibility in coverage of all phases, in the sequence of the phases, or in relative emphasis upon them, can be permitted while retaining the basic orientation toward a laboratory approach to learning about interpersonal behavior, is being studied.

The Development of Resource Units

A first, essential step in making it possible for classroom teachers to collaborate with us in the testing of these ideas about teaching social science to elementary children was to describe in some detail how the teacher and her class might proceed through the various phases of a specific unit. This description and collection of resource materials was formulated as a teacher resource unit. Two such pilot resource units were developed as part of the project being reported in this document, one on "Relations between Older and Younger Children," and a second on "Angry Feelings."

A copy of one of these units, that dealing with olders and youngers, is included in the Appendix as a sample of the form of material produced so far. It must be recognized that the project is in its early developmental stage and that these materials have already undergone the first of many revisions that will inevitably take place as the project staff and classroom teachers gain experience in the use of the materials in a variety of situations.

Included in this initial resource unit are background concepts and theory for the teacher, step by step suggestions regarding the conduct of the various phases, description of the recommended behavior episodes, tools for diagnoses and for measurement of change, and reports, written at children's level, of some of the relevant research conducted by social scientists on the topic. Since this latter type of material is of particular interest, and since very little research on the relationships between older and younger children has been reported in the journals that seemed appropriate for this unit, there has also been included in the Appendix a sample of the Phase 9 materials (the findings of social scientists) prepared for the second resource unit, that on "Angry Feelings."

It is envisioned that additional ideas for extension, enrichment, and variation of the basic activities covered in this original resource unit will be added in subsequent revisions. A wealth of such ideas is already being gathered in our files as a result of suggestions made, and adaptations devised by the classroom teachers who have been collaborating with us.

Testing of a Unit in the Classroom

So that the reader may gain a clearer idea of how the ideas and materials described in this report are actually utilized in the classroom, a brief description is here provided of what happened when a fourth grade teacher and her class engaged in a study of "Relations between Older and Younger Children." We shall call the teacher Mrs. Smith. Mrs. Smith worked with the resource unit which is included in the Appendix of this report. She reserved about a half-hour, three times a week, for her unit on social science.

Introduction to the class of the concept of social science.

When the class was assembled in an intimate discussion group near the teacher, Mrs. Smith began talking to them about something with which they were familiar--the number of chapters in each of their library books. She held up a large cardboard on which was printed the title, "The Wonder Book of Sciences."

"If we were to write a book like this, how many chapters would we have? How many sciences do you know about?"

The class mentioned several. Someone added, "Social science." They talked about what the word "social" meant. She led them to the idea that social science was the study of the way people interacted, the way they behaved. The class thought that "to behave" meant "to be good". So she recalled the day they had watched two cats out the window. How they had acted was neither "good" nor "bad". Their behavior, or the way they were acting--climbing on the sill, hiding under the cars--was just "cat-like".

"Social scientists don't use test tubes, as some scientists do", continued Mrs. Smith. "Here are some of the tools they use."

On another cardboard she had drawn a wide-awake eye, a sleepy eye, two ears, a head, a pencil and paper. "Which eye," she asked, "do you suppose social scientists use?" They discussed how the other tools would be used.

She asked how many children had older or younger brothers and sisters. All hands went up. "A good place for us to start using our tools as social scientists might be to see how older and younger children behave together."

Many children volunteer data: "My brother and I are real pals. We fish together."

"My fifth grade brother always picks on me."

"My sister slaps me and kicks me."

"What a lot of different ways of behaving." commented Mrs. Smith. "I think it will be fun to study how people act." The class nodded assent.

Presenting and observing a specimen of behavior.

The class came back next day with reports on what they had observed on the playground and at home about how olders and youngers interacted. Mrs. Smith told them that just as scientists studying rocks or chemicals look at specimens, so they, as social scientists, should have a specimen of behavior that all the class could look at. They would all be able to see the same thing, and then could discuss it. She picked four boys who were high status with their peers to act out a specimen of behavior for the rest to observe.

The incident to be presented (taken from the teacher's resource unit in the Appendix) was as follows:

Suggested Behavioral Specimen for Observation in Unit on Younger-Older Relations

Characters--Tom and Jim	Pete and Fred
Older boys	Younger boys

Scene: A street running past Pete's House.

Two 3rd graders (Pete and Fred) are sitting on the steps of Pete's house trying to mend a broken bat. Pete has gotten some tape from the kitchen drawer. They are not having any success and have made a mess out of the tape. It has been raining. The sun is out now, but there are puddles in the street. Two older boys (6th grade) Tom and Jim come up the street, hurrying to get to a vacant lot to play ball. They have a bat, ball and glove. They are talking about how glad they are it isn't raining and how little time they have left to play before dinner. Fred sees the bigger boys and says he's going to ask them to help fix the bat. Pete says they won't help smaller boys about their "baby bat" and what a mess they've made trying to fix it. The second older boy, Jim, wants to get to the ball field. He doesn't want to be bothered with little kids. Tom is enjoying teasing the younger ones. He takes the broken pieces of the bat over to show his older friend. The younger boys try to get it back. Pete steals around behind Tom and snatches the bat. Tom runs after him and Fred gets in front of Tom and stamps in a puddle, getting the big boy wet. Both smaller boys run into the house. Jim, the second biggest boy, urges Tom to come along and not bother with little kids. Tom yells toward the house where the younger boys are, "Just wait till I get you for this." He goes off up the street to play ball.

Briefing the actors. At recess she had a meeting with the four boys to discuss their roles. She emphasized that they were different from the characters they were to act. She gave them briefing sheets which explained what each was like, how he felt about the others, and some of the reasons why he felt this way. As they went over this, she added details, using their character's names:

"Tom, you like to tease little kids. It makes you feel big. What sort of look do you think would be on your face when you see a little kid? How would you walk? Do you think you'd take bigger steps when you are around little kids to show them who was bigger?"

"Fred," Mrs. Smith continues, "you think big boys are always helpful to little kids. Do you see already we are about to have a problem?"

She turns to Jim. "Jim, you don't think little kids are worth bothering with. What would you be urging Tom to do if he were teasing?"

Jim says, "To stop it."

"Yes," Mrs. Smith agrees, "Not because you were sorry for the little kids, but because he is just wasting time."

Each took his individual briefing sheet home to read over. At the next briefing session she told them the story of the actual episode with lots of possible dialogue. They then rehearsed the action. At the end of two more short rehearsals they were ready. Mrs. Smith's next job was to get the class ready to observe them.

Briefing the group leaders. Mrs. Smith decided to have five observation groups, one to watch interaction, and each of four others to watch one of the characters to answer the following questions:

What did he plan to do in the beginning?

Did he really do what he planned?

How did his actions cause others to do and feel?

How did he feel about what finally happened?

So that there might be leaders for each observation group, she briefed five of her class who were natural leaders, a few minutes after school the day before the class was to observe the behavior specimen. She went over the questions [illegible] each group with them and reminded them of one of the qualities of a good leader--that all opinions of the members must be recognized and noted.

Actual presentation of the specimen. Mrs. Smith read the names of the children and the leader for each observation group. The episode was played through so all could see it. It was acted a second time after each group was given one special character to observe. After the second time the episode was played, each group leader was given a list of the questions. They took their groups with their chairs to different parts of the room to discuss the questions. The leaders read the questions and the members offered their ideas. After five minutes of small group discussion, they came back together for a general discussion. Mrs. Smith said that other people might have noticed different things about an individual character than those the group assigned to watch him might mention, so to speak up if there were any other or different ideas from those reported by the group leaders.

On the board she had written the questions, one under the other. In five columns to the right of the questions she had written summarizing comments. For example:

Question	Tom	Jim	Pete	Fred	Interaction
4. How did he feel about what finally happened?	Likes getting even	Puzzled	Mad, bad, scared	Scared	Olders unfriendly four times. Youngers unfriendly to olders two times. Olders friendly to youngers, twice.

The participant observers were eager to express ideas. The discussion moved along without teacher pushing.

Suddenly one boy said, "This isn't real."

Mrs. Smith asked him for an example of something that had happened to him that was real.

He told about his sister making him do work at home.

"If we acted that out would it be real to the rest of the boys and girls?" asked Mrs. Smith. He thought it would. "Perhaps this situation of the bat and the quarrel happened to someone else," explained the teacher. "We can only look at one situation at a time. We are looking at this one now."

Other teachers use separate groups and group recorders to collect data. Two other fourth grade teachers in the same school used the group recorders and divided their class into observation groups. These were not as successful as were those in Mrs. Smith's class. Mrs. Atkins was the first to try it. She gave the recording job to the five people who could do the very best at expressing ideas and writing them down. The members of the groups led by these capable pupils, realized they were the smartest and accepted the recorders' ideas with not much group discussion. The reporting back was just that, with no discussion from the floor on the opinions the group leaders reported. The class didn't have a chance to express differences of opinion. Mrs. Atkins, realizing this, had the class meet after recess for a free discussion in which other children had a chance to talk.

Mrs. Blossom picked her leader-recorders at random. They had no experience in leading a group. In two observer groups this lack was evident. One little boy began filling out the answers with no reference whatever to the other members of his group. One little girl became very bossy with her group and wrote only her own ideas in spite of what they said. Since the teachers in the project met each week to discuss procedure, and also observed one another whenever possible, Mrs. Smith had a chance to profit from the experience of others before reaching this phase with her class. Thus, she selected her group leaders carefully and briefed them on their responsibilities.

The concept of cause and effect.

Before they reached the phase of interpreting cause and effect relationships from the data gathered from their behavioral specimen, Mrs. Smith wanted to help the pupils understand the concept of cause and effect. This took ten minutes at the end of another subject period and was unrelated to Social Science in the minds of the children:

"All eyes up here, please. Here is your arithmetic assignment." She wrote, "Arithm----". The chalk slipped out of her hand and fell to the floor. "My goodness! What caused that chalk to fall? (Silence) Come on, you scientists. What caused it to fall?"

"You were writing too fast."

"Air pushed it down."

"You were writing the wrong way."

"You let go of it."

"Did something scare you?"

Somebody said, "Gravity."

Mrs. Smith said, "It might have looked as if these things caused it to fall. But it would not have fallen if it had not been for gravity."

This seemed to be an excellent way to spark the pupils' interest in cause and effect. But in discussing it later with the others in the project it was decided that it would have been more helpful to have used this incident to illustrate the concept of "multiple causality." So the next day Mrs. Smith reminded the pupils of the incident. She said they were right about gravity being one reason the chalk fell, but there are many causes for things happening.

"Here, Teddy," She threw the chalk to him. "Now drop it. Now what are some reasons it fell?"

"Gravity," one child responded.

"He dropped it."

"The teacher told him to drop it."

"I'll tell you another reason my chalk fell when I was writing," continued Mrs. Smith. "I wanted you to learn about cause and effect and thought this was a good way to show you about it."

This illustration of the chalk, but with a multiple causation emphasis, has been used successfully in other third and fifth grade classes since then.

Interpreting cause and effect in the behavioral specimen.

At the beginning of this session every child was given a sheet that looked like this, except it took a whole page so there was room to write many causes beside each number in the cause column.

FINDING OUT WHY

CAUSE	EFFECT
1.	1. Fred asks________ ________.
2.	2. Tom________ and takes ____ ____.
3.	3. Pete ___________bat.
4.	4. Tom__________Pete.
5.	5. Fred __________ Tom.
6.	6. Tom shouts "________ ____ _____!"

Several children were asked to read the sentences with the blanks. The children guessed the word that goes in each blank. This procedure helped the poor readers participate. The children wrote the words in the blanks. Then there was a discussion of the causes of each statement: Why did Fred ask for help? Tom tease and take bat? Pete snatch the bat? Tom chase Pete? Fred splash Tom? and Tom shout "I'll get even"? Mrs. Smith wrote the causes on the board. Each child copied them on his or her individual papers.

Among the causes given were:

1. Why did Fred ask for help?
    He realized Tom was older.
    He thought olders would like to help.
    He wanted to play ball.
    He trusted his big brother.
2. Why did Tom tease and take the bat?
    Can tease youngers safely.
    To act big and be smart.
    Tom's big brother teased him.
3. Why did Pete snatch the bat?
    Pete's bat in the first place.
    Felt he shouldn't be teased.
    Wanted to get even.
4. Why did Tom chase Pete?
    To get bat back.
    Did not like grabbing.

Placing values on consequences.

Mrs. Smith drew eight cartoon stick figure pictures with captions which she used in the opaque projector to review the episode as a kick off for placing values on consequences. A different child read each caption.

"Some things that happened we like. Others we did not like. Can you decide what you liked and did not like and why?" asked Mrs. Smith.

She passed out dittoed papers to each child. They read:

	Can we tell why?
Things we liked	
Things we did not like	

The front board was arranged in the same columns as the papers. Mrs. Smith wrote the children's remarks under the appropriate headings.

"I liked Fred splashing Tom."

"Why?"

"Because it was funny. He didn't know what to do."

"You mean you liked it because he got even?"

A nod.

"I didn't like Tom's teasing."

A discussion of "why" followed.

Another boy said, "*I didn't* like Fred's splashing Tom."

They found it interesting that people's opinions differed.

Some of the "Whys" were why they thought the characters acted that way rather than why they liked or didn't like it. Mrs. Smith tried to help them. "I'm not asking at this point why it happened, but did you like what happened and why." She called a little girl to her and skipped around the room with her. "I don't want you to tell me why I am skipping, but do you like it and why do you, if you do?"

A child spoke up. "You might be friends."

Mrs. Smith tried to interpret what she was saying. "You like to see friends go around with other friends? It's a friendly thing to do?"

There was general agreement. One dissenting voice said, "What if I didn't like it because Debbie was my friend and I didn't like to see my friend with somebody else?"

The boys sitting back of him leaned forward. "You have to like it."

The first boy turned around "I do not have to like it," he retorted.

The recess bell rang. No one jumped up. Everyone wanted to continue talking. This had been a very good discussion of the children's own opinions.

Mrs. Atkins, in her treatment of this phase, led the children's discussion along the lines of "results we like," "results we don't like," and "things we think are important to keep," leaving out the "why" step emphasized by Mrs. Smith. She was disappointed in her results, however, because she felt this procedure led to verbalizing of what the the children thought were the teacher's values rather than forming value criteria through discussion and assessment of values held by the children themselves.

We need more thinking on ways of developing with the children criteria for determining values and deciding action on the strength of values held. To this end both Mrs. Smith and Mrs. Atkins expressed a desire for working on a unit on decision-making for next year.

Exploring alternative behavioral consequences.

Before tackling the phase on alternative behavior, Mrs. Smith thought the children should be presented with the concept that there may be many "correct" ways to accomplish one's ends, not just to use one solution that is always the best. In arithmetic class they discussed how many correct number combinations can be found that make 18. Many answers were discovered: 9 X 2, 3 X 6, 16 plus 2, 20 minus 2, etc.

Then they had a discussion of "What is the shortest way home?" They decided that it depended on what you wanted to do. If you wanted to walk home with a friend to his house the shortest way to your house would be past his. If you wanted to go to the store right after school it would be shorter to choose the street that went past the store than to go all the way home and then back to the store.

In their social science class the children concluded they did not like the way the behavioral episode ended, the feelings everyone had inside, and the results of the actions.

"If we changed the actions would the outcome be different?" asked Mrs. Smith. "Whose actions could we change?"

"We could change Fred. Fred wouldn't have to ask."

"But Pete and Fred would never get their bat fixed that way," objected a classmate.

"Jim could pull Tom away."

"They'd call him chicken."

"Jim could say Fred's big brother would beat them up if they teased Fred."

"Jim could say, 'I don't want to play baseball if Tom teases.'"

Mrs. Smith wondered what would happen if the younger boys refused to be teased by Tom's actions. They decided to act out some alternatives next time to see if they would result in better feelings all the way around.

(During the summary of learnings phase, one child said he learned that we could change people. Mrs. Smith was concerned because she had not wanted to give them the idea that all you had to do was to change people. This was not very realistic. Maybe if she had said during this alternative discussion, "Who could change his actions?" instead of "Whose actions could we change?" the idea that if there is to be change the individual himself must change would have been clearer. In some units there have been places where other classmates give the actors advice on how they can behave so as to see if this would solve their problem better.)

Acting out alternatives.

For the session on the acting out of alternatives, Mrs. Smith wrote several suggested alternative ways of behaving on slips of paper. She divided the class into six groups of four each and named one member the leader. The leader drew a slip with an alternative out of the hat. No group opened their slips till all had drawn. The groups were made up of all boys or all girls. When it came time for the girls to act, Mrs. Smith explained that the girls were going to help the class look at another possible change. No one thought it odd when they put on the name tags of the four boys in the behavior specimen.

The alternatives which were acted out included:

Jim pulling Tom away and getting into a fight with Tom.
The younger boys refusing to be teased by Tom's actions.
Jim persuading Tom to come along and play ball.
Tom fixing the bat.
The youngers not asking Tom to help them in the first place.
Jim going home when Tom began to tease.

The groups had ten minutes to discuss and plan their specimen of changed behavior. Before any of the changes took place the original cast played the episode just as they did it in the first place, to refresh everyone's mind as to the sequence of events and give them a little security in acting out different ways it might end up because of different actions of one person.

When the acting was over Mrs. Smith said, "Remember that day there was fighting on the playground and we were trying not to get angry about it? When Fred and Pete didn't get mad at being teased it made me think of that day. One little thing being different may change the whole thing. It's just something to think about."

Discussing the alternatives.

The next time the class met for social science they were given dittoed sheets that read:

> We watched a behavioral situation and saw that it did not end with a happy feeling. The boys did not even do what they started out to do. We decided we could change the ending to make a better feeling. We did this by changing the actions of just one person.

The six alternatives were listed on the left hand side of the paper. A box in which to check "will" or "won't" was placed on the right hand side of the paper corresponding to each alternative.

The children were asked to mark which alternatives they thought would or would not make for better feelings all the way around. After they marked their own papers, they voted on these with their heads down so as not to be influenced by each other. The last alternative--Jim went home when Tom began to tease--they discussed rather than voted upon. Different ideas as to what would result were expressed:

> "Jim would be mad. Pete and Fred would still be teased."
> "Tom might follow Jim if he had no one else to play with."
> "Tom would have to like Jim a real lot to stop if Jim left."
> "Tom might not do it again if he had no one to play with."

The project coordinator and Mrs. Smith felt it might have been better to discuss the other alternatives in the light of just who would have ended up with better feelings, rather than simply to have voted.

Summarizing unit learnings; drawing generalizations.

Mrs. Smith talked about the word "general". The class looked it up in their dictionaries. She looked up "generalization" in the big dictionary. They discussed that a generalization was composed of many facts and a "meeting point" which brought about a generalization. They began to discuss generalizations they had derived from facts learned in social science.

One girl said, "Your ways can be changed."

"How do you know?" asked the teacher.

"We did it and it changed the whole thing."

"You've learned people are able to change their ways?" Mrs. Smith asked.

"We've learned to change people around," said another boy.

"I'd hate to think I'd spend the rest of my life changing people," said the teacher. "We have discovered that if one person makes a change in a situation it can change a lot of things, sometimes....but you are the one person over whom you have control. Are there any situations at home between you and older and younger brothers and sisters where the feelings are not so pleasant? What might you try to do differently that would make for better feelings?"

Two children reported on bickering situations between themselves and slightly older children. The teacher pointed out that the way they were telling these incidents seemed to show that the children really enjoyed the squabbling. One boy had a big brother who made him play basketball. He would beat him and make him play even when he was tired. There were some unrealistic pieces of advice from classmates which Mrs. Smith pointed out would not bring the desired results. She suggested that Joe be honest with his brother about not wanting to play and try to find other ways for his brother to feel big besides winning at basketball. She suggested he try it out and report back to the class.

Exploring relevance to other situations and applications to one's own life.

Three girls acted out a situation which seemed to bother many children in an "older" role about the bahavior of a younger. Two "older" girls were sewing on the ear of a stuffed dog. A little child came over and tried to touch the dog. Her efforts were regarded with distrust by the "older" whose dog it was. The olders told the little one to go away. She left, angry. Soon she came back and hit the bigger children. When the bigger ones went after her she said, "If you hit me I'll tell my mommie. You can't hit me. I'm younger than you."

"What do you think the little one wanted?" asked the teacher.

"She wanted to get hold of the dog."

"She tried to get them mad so they would chase her."

"I used to do that to my brother."

"When I was three I hit a girl who had a toy I wanted."

"Do little children understand as much as you do?" asked the teacher. "When you are little you are curious. Why might the younger one have wanted to get hold of the dog?"

"It was soft." "It was pretty." "She might have wanted to get it away to make her mad." were some of the responses.

"What could the olders have done?" asked the teacher.

"Offer her another toy. Give her somethings else," suggested a child.

"My brother knocks over something and I chase him. He complains to Mommie. What should I do?" asked a boy.

"What could David have done without chasing?" asked the teacher.

"He could let him play," said Bruce. "My brother, he gets water and masks and things when we play baseball. He thinks it's great. He can hit if we throw the ball real soft."

"My brother, he's six. He has to come with us all the time. He tripped over a rock and fell and told Mom I hit him. What can I do?" asked another boy.

"Maybe he thought you didn't want him to go and he was mad at you," suggested a girl.

"Find him someone his own age to play with," suggested a boy.

"My little brother doesn't want me to watch TV," said a girl.

"Sometimes he'll play with me," suggested a boy living next door. "Why don't you tell him to come over?"

"My sister's teacher told us a good game to have little kids play by themselves," volunteered another classmate. "Pretend the living room is water and take two pillows and step on them as if they were islands. Take one up and put it somewhere and step on it and then move the other one so as to keep dry. My brother plays that by himself for hours."

The teacher asked the children to try out ideas they had gotten from their discussion and report the results to the class. In about two-thirds of the cases they reported that what they had done had worked out well. Some, of course, did not.

CHAPTER IV

INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION FOR TEACHING SOCIAL SCIENCE

The teaching of social science as a laboratory science requires the active involvement of the teacher. Procedure as well as content is important. It will not be possible to achieve this kind of a curriculum change by reliance on curriculum materials alone. Therefore, the project staff has attempted to discover in collaboration with the teachers in the three school buildings which were involved during the 1963-64 school year, just what understandings and skills are required of teachers to do an effective job. (The schools were the University School, and Mack School in Ann Arbor; Holmes School in Willow Run). In the process of trying to give the project teachers assistance in gaining these understandings and skills, some experience was gained in the designing of orientation sessions, skills training exercises, and written materials that will serve as a basis for future development of inservice education plans and resources. This chapter will report these experiences and observations.

Objectives for Inservice Education Activities for Teachers

In general, teacher can expect to gain assistance from the inservice education program in the following areas:

(1) The objectives and content of the social science curriculum.

(2) Social science background needed by the teacher to teach the units.

(3) Skills and techniques useful in the teaching of the social science curriculum units.

(4) Special difficulties incurred in working with children, and how to deal with them.

(5) Skills in modifying and adapting the basic materials to meet the needs of particular groups of children, e.g., children of differing levels of maturity, differing socio-economic class level, etc.

Objectives of the Project Staff

The major objective of the staff in this pilot project was to gain insight into the nature of teachers' inservice education needs and to explore some of the methods through which these needs might be satisfied. The careful development of appropriate materials and the testing of a comprehensive program is obviously a later stage.

More specifically, staff objectives were to:

(1) Isolate difficulties in the teaching of a unit of social science in accordance with the recommended laboratory approach; identify aspects that need modification.

(2) Gain knowledge about the needs of teachers for background in the social sciences; test ways of meeting these needs.

(3) Isolate teaching techniques required for effective use of the approach for which teachers need skill training; test several ways of providing such training.

(4) Develop ways of describing the program to persons unfamiliar with it; test these with a variety of teacher groups.

Description of Aspects of the Pilot Inservice Education Program

An inservice education program seems to call for at least four distinct types of activities: (1) some kind of general presentation to the total faculty of a school for purposes of informing them of the nature of the program and for recruiting those teachers who become interested in more extensive involvement in utilization of the project's materials in teaching social science in their classrooms, (2) a more intensive series of orientation and training activities for those teachers interested in teaching the units, prior to actual teaching, (3) activities designed to give support and further skills to teachers during the process of their teaching of the materials to children, and (4) activities designed to share with other interested groups, faculties, or school systems information which may lead to diffusion of the program to other situations.

General presentation to the faculty.

Two types of general presentations were designed. In the preceding year several teachers at Holmes School and at the University School participated in earlier aspects of the project. All of the teachers who had contact with the project during this period, except those who did not return to the school system the second year, wished to continue their involvement. They had made plans to teach social science in their classrooms this year and had also aroused the interest of other teachers in their building. At Mack School there had been no contact prior to the 1963-64 school year. Because of the difference in contact with the project it seemed appropriate that there be a different emphasis in the initial presentation of the project to this faculty. At Holmes and the University School there was one meeting, which will be summarized below, to aid in clarification of the project for newly interested teachers. At Mack School there was a more extensive program for the entire

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school staff which enabled teachers to decide if they would be interested in joining the efforts of experimentation and development of social science material in their classrooms.

The one meeting at Holmes and at University School for the entire school staff was conducted by an educator and a social scientist. The main emphasis was on the importance of the social scientist in our society today and the importance of introducing social science content within the formal schooling of the elementary school child. At Mack School the program design served as a means of informing all of the staff about the project; there was a more thorough and extensive presentation to all of the teachers. The three meetings occurred during the month of February in 1964. The three sessions were:

Session I - Presentation of "Why We Need Social Sciences in the Elementary School," from the viewpoint of the demonstrating teacher and a social scientist. It included discussion with the teachers on their perceptions of inadequacies of the existing curriculum in meeting the needs of students in understanding human behavior.

Session II - "Demonstrating the Important Parts of the Unit." An overview of the phases of the unit, emphasizing Phases III, IV, and V. This session was primarily a demonstration of role-playing with children. The teachers served as members of a class to understand the process of analyzing the behavioral specimen and understanding human behavior in terms of cause and effect. This meeting was conducted by the demonstrating teacher.

Session III - "How we Handle Value Issues in the Schools and in the Social Science Curriculum" was a demonstration by a social scientist and a demonstration teacher of the various ways the schools handle value issues that are presented to them, and the manner in which these issues are dealt with in the social science units. This was of particular concern to the teachers at this school; Mack school is a bi-racial school with a bi-modal distribution of children at the lower and higher ends of the socio-economic scale.

Initial orientation and training of participating teachers.

Mack School and the University School worked with the unit on "Angry Feelings" and Holmes School concentrated on "Relationships between Younger and Older Peers." Three or four meetings were held under the leadership of one or more of the project staff members in each of these schools before the teachers began the teaching of these units in their own classrooms. Emphasis within these sessions was on: (1) the introduction to social science, areas of social science, social science as a discipline; (2) the introduction to relevant concepts (the force field and the circular process for the unit on Youngers and Olders; schematic diagrams of causes of anger for the unit on Angry Feelings); (3) an introduction to role-playing and the relevance of the behavioral specimen to the unit (demonstration and practice of role-playing techniques); and (4) an introduction to diagnostic instruments as tools for evaluating change, for determining existing class attitudes, for obtaining feedback, or information about the sociometric status of class members.

Continuing support activities.

All of the collaborating teachers at the three schools were involved in at least one weekly meeting with the project staff for a period of approximately eight weeks. The weekly meetings concentrated on (1) an evaluation of the phase already taught, and (2) preparation for the next phase. The project staff often observed the teachers in their classrooms; teachers also observed their colleagues. It was found in each of the schools that a weekly meeting was not sufficient time to cover all of the materials which needed to be discussed. This was resolved in different ways at the three different schools involved. At Holmes School there were two arranged meetings per week, one at lunch hour to evaluate the phase already taught, and one meeting after school to make preparations for the next phase. The schedule of the meeting times for one teacher was as follows:

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday and Friday
8:30 to 9:30 Teach phase in classroom (project staff and teacher observation)	11:30 to 12:30 Feedback session with project staff members and other teachers	3:30 to 4:30 Meeting with teachers and staff to prepare for next phase	Individual preparation to teach next phase to class

At Mack School and at The University School the staff met and talked with individual teachers or small groups of teachers as problems arose. Generally, this did not prove to be as profitable as the method used at Holmes because it did not allow for as much teacher exchange and sharing. The communication was more between the project staff and teachers rather than teachers sharing and helping among themselves. In all of the schools the project staff generally "played it by ear" for we did not know what problems would arise. There were many informal conversations after school, and discussion on the telephone in order to resolve the problems that arose. During this entire period the project staff was generally "on call". The collaboration among teachers and interpersonal communication within the staff particularly at Holmes School, was also an aid and a help to the teachers. The mistakes of the teacher who had taught a particular phase in the morning were passed on to another teacher so that she could avoid the same pitfalls when she taught the phase in the afternoon. All of the teachers were committed to the importance of social science curriculum in the schools and were willing to spend additional time in discussion, preparation, and evaluation.

Reactions and suggestions from the teachers were received in many ways: through the interpersonal contacts with teachers and project staff, through post meeting reaction sheets at the end of a planned meeting, and through a systematic provision for written feedback from the teachers after they had completed the training and the teaching of a unit. This feedback enabled the project staff to make changes in the units themselves as well as suggest ways of changing the teacher training program. These suggestions will be incorporated in plans for units and training programs for next year.

Out of the eighteen teachers involved, two teachers who taught Olders and Youngers will teach Angry Feelings this year. Two teachers (third and fourth grades) who taught Angry Feelings are planning a team effort to teach Olders and Youngers; one sixth grade teacher is developing and teaching a unit on Boys and Girls Grow Up; two teachers are developing a unit on Decision Making; and one first grade teacher has developed a unit on relations between Grownups and Children to supplement the social studies emphasis on the Home. All other teachers who are remaining, expressed general interest in continued cooperation with the project staff next year. At Holmes School the principal has made arrangements for classes who have had social science as a curriculum experience to be given to teachers who will continue their social science education. At Mack School the principal has expressed interest in attempting to involve more teachers in the social science curriculum; one possible way in which this might be done is through identifying teams of teachers--newly interested teachers collaborating with teachers who have gone through the training program this year.

Diffusion to Other Schools or School Systems.

Not only are there likely to be requests from other professional groups for explanations of a new curriculum development of this type, but the program of inservice education should give some attention to the most effective ways of introducing to the larger group of potential adopters the essential aspects of the program. So that procedures for effective diffusion may be developed eventually, a record of our experience in meeting various requests for the sharing of information about our project has been kept. Four presentations were made during the year: for the Ann Arbor Schools Staff Study Day, the Willow Run Education Association, and Education Week program at the University of Michigan, and for the Erikson Elementary School in Ypsilanti.

The Ann Arbor Schools' Staff Study Day is an annual meeting of the teachers in the Ann Arbor school system. Teachers attend several meetings of their choice during a one day period. We presented one of these meetings to about forty teachers. The Willow Run Education Association planned a meeting after school for the elementary school teachers in their association. Our presentation was given to approximately forty-five teachers. The plan for both these meetings was very similar. There was a background presentation of the history of the project and information about the members of the staff. An overview of the units was presented using slides depicting the various phases. There was also a demonstration of role-playing with children, and an attempt to collect and analyze data with the teachers serving as members of the class. In both of these presentations there was a great amount of interest generated and many teachers asked to be placed on a list for future collaboration with the project staff.

Education Week, sponsored by the University of Michigan School of Education, enabled students of the School of Education to attend several meetings on educational innovations. Staff members presented a program consisting of the history of the project, a general overview of the units with illustrative charts, and an emphasis on the necessity for the development of social science as an addition to the curriculum.

The program developed for the Erikson School was one of the most elaborate and innovative ways used in informing teachers in a building of our design for a social science curriculum. The psychologist for the school system and the principal of Erikson School in Ypsilanti had learned of the Elementary Social Science Education project through their contacts with members of the Institute for Social Research. A presentation and demonstration was arranged, to be conducted during the school day. All of the teachers in the building attended a luncheon meeting; a project staff member presented a background picture of the project and gave a brief overview of the design and content of a unit. During the first part of the afternoon the staff member conducted a demonstration with a second grade classroom, carrying them through the major phases of a unit, while all of the lower grade teacher observed. During the later part of the afternoon she conducted a demonstration in a sixth grade classroom with all of the upper grade teachers observing. After each demonstration there was a short question-answer period. The teachers had been freed from their classroom responsibilities during this time by parents and other teachers taking over their classrooms, or by arranging for large group music classes or extra gym classes. After the demonstration and discussion period some teachers expressed interest in establishing contact with the project for the next school year. The principal of the school, the school psychologist who had made most of the arrangements, and the demonstrating teacher were impressed with this way of exposing teachers to the project.

Problems of Teacher Training for Teaching Social Science

Many problems confronted the project staff during the inservice training program for teachers. Adequate solutions to many of these problems were not found, but serve as a challenge for future staff efforts.

Time

Teachers were often pressed for time within the classroom and out of the classroom. Within the classroom teachers had obligations to complete lessons in other curriculum areas. Many of them found it difficult to "squeeze in" social science education. The salience of this problem varied according to the individual teacher. It seemed that those teachers who were convinced of the necessity of social science education did not have the same amount of difficulty coordinating social science with the rest of the curriculum as those teachers who felt that social science was nice to include, but not too necessary. Solutions to this problem were found in many ways. Some teachers presented the units in conjunction with a prescribed social studies unit. For example, one teacher used the unit,Angry Feelings, as part of a study of world problems. Although she did not emphasize the connection between interpersonal and international problems, she felt that studying anger was legitimate, and stated in her next attempt to teach the unit she would be able to make a direct connection. Another teacher used Angry Feelings in connection with a first grade unit on the family. She used cross-age situations of anger as well as cross-generational situations within the home context.

Some teachers cut short the time spent on other subjects so that they could include social science in the time allotment for the school day. The problem of finding time to spend outside of the classroom for meetings, for planning and preparation, was never completely resolved. This difficulty may be solved in part, when the involvement of teachers becomes not so much as collaborators in developing new materials, as in utilizing well-tested resource materials in relation to the specific job of teaching the children in their own classrooms.

School administration and school structure.

In all three schools the administration played an important supportive role; they helped teachers solve administrative problems that occurred in the teaching and learning of the units. In all cases the administrative staff released teachers when possible for additional time to work on the problems that had arisen or to visit other project teachers. The project staff found that one important factor in the training program was the informal communication channels that existed between teachers. At Mack School the channels for communication were open; sharing and cooperation occurred among the teaching and administrative staff. It is a highly cohesive and innovative staff which approaches many educational problems as a team. At Holmes School many teachers commented that there had been relatively little interpersonal and professional exchanging of teaching ideas. The training program set new wheels in motion. The teachers reported thay gained insights and found it helpful to share their own experiences and to discuss new techniques and methodology with their colleagues.

Teacher background in social science.

One problem that became immediately apparent was the variability in teachers' knowledge and attitudes toward the content area of social science. Some teachers had considerable experience and knowledge of the field; they had several courses in their university training and were fairly conversant with social science content. Other teachers had no experience and no knowledge of the content or methodology of social science. These latter teachers approached the social science training with many misconceptions. One general misconception was that introducing social science curriculum in the school was going to solve discipline problems in their classrooms; social science was a new device to control children and to make them "behave better". It was necessary to dispel some of these prevalent misconceptions through the inservice training program. Teacher unfamiliarity with social science terminology and concepts creates some difficulty in communication. Some felt the material was too difficult; others thought it was too simple. These problems resulted in a slow start in the training series and also led to our realization that we needed more information from the teachers about their initial expectations.

Teacher expectations of the project.

The project staff should have secured some communication from the teachers at the beginning of the training program about expectations. Generalizing from what teachers said various times during the training program it appears that their expectations included: (1) seeing the project as a means of solving discipline problems in the classroom; (2) teaching social science will change children's behavior, help them make better decisions, improve interpersonal relations in the classroom; (3) the units will help children understand themselves and other people better; (4) the units will provide solutions in the content areas covered, i.e., how to resolve angry feelings, what to do about teasing, how youngers and olders get along; (5) the program will provide a way of presenting the social science concepts to the teachers so that they could also present them to their elementary school children. It is apparent that these expectations should have been dealth with, to dispel them or reinforce them.

Values.

The area of values was of great and continuing concern to the teachers and to the project staff. Teachers were confused about what values were and how they should be faced in the classroom. The project staff predicted this would be an area of concern and consequently placed a great deal of emphasis on it. That this emphasis may not have been entirely helpful was indicated by some of the teachers. As one teacher said, "I feel tongue-tied when I talk about values because I'm afraid I will say the wrong thing." We found that teachers often had not faced their own values nor thought about the differences among the values held by the children in their classrooms. This was a particularly salient problem for Holmes School and at Mack School; both bi-racial schools of lower, middle and upper middle class children. The problems of value confrontation were experienced by teachers in other areas of teaching and the informal relations in their classroom. At Mack School it was found helpful to hold an intensive discussion with the teachers about their own values and about how they differ from the children's. The project staff role-played a value session with the teachers. In this session they were led to see what values they did hold, why they held them, and the extent to which they were tolerant of different values.

At Holmes School a similar session was held with seven of the participating teachers. They talked about (1) which of our values are worth keeping, (2) why they are worth keeping, (3) should anything be changed about this situation, (4) how do we decide on values; from where do our ideas about them come, (5) why are values held, (6) how one can predict other people's actions, (7) how values influence our action, (8) the extent to which different people hold different values, (9) reasons for different value judgments. These intensive discussions about value issues led to new insights for the teachers about their relations with the children in their classrooms. They also afforded some comfort to the teacher that she would be able to deal with these issues as they arose in the context of the social science unit. Most of the teachers felt that this area was one of the most important learning experiences for them in relation to the units, as well as their teaching generally.

Conceptual or theoretical material.

Some teachers felt that concepts such as the force field and the diagrams about anger situations were too abstract for the class to understand. They felt that the children would not be interested. Consequently, some teachers did not introduce these into their classroom. Other teachers felt that children would be able to understand and based much of their classroom discussions on the theoretical frameworks. One Kindergarten teacher used the diagrams of anger situations which are included in the introductory phase of the unit. She graphically presented the diagrams to the children and found that the children could understand the conceputal material and use it in understanding what happened outside of the content of social science. All teachers who presented the conceptual material to their classes, devised their own procedures for presenting it. It was agreed that subsequent revisions of the units should include methods for teaching such concepts so that children will find them relevant and the teachers will not be hesitant in introducing them to the class.

Teacher involvement.

During the course of their collaboration with the project, the teachers became involved in a variety of ways. Some were very creative and innovative, utilizing all of the material prepared by the staff and constructing more materials of their own. Other teachers complied with the unit design and did no more than that which was required. On the other hand, many teachers created sub-units on particular skills, such as understanding cause and effect relations; created role-playing specimens in order to teach children to observe; brought in additional stories, pictures and films which supplemented the unit; and generally made their whole curriculum revolve around social science teaching for the period they were involved. Some teachers asked for more elaboration within the unit, but did not feel comfortable in elaborating themselves on the original designs and did not create other materials to go along with the unit.

It became obvious as soon as the teachers started teaching the unit that a complete revision of the working draft would be necessary if it were to be meaningful at the primary level. The primary grade teachers met with the project consultant and on their own in order to develop adaptations of the units on Youngers and Olders and Angry Feelings that they felt would meet the needs of the curriculum in the Kindergarten, first, and second grades. This involved revising the goals, creating different and less complicated behavioral specimens, and devising different data collection techniques. It also required that much of the material designed to be read by the upper grade children had to be presented orally to the class by the teacher. Much of the vocabulary was new for these children. After using these revised materials with their classes these teachers felt optimistic about the feasibility of presenting this material to very young children.

The teachers contributed material to the project staff for revision of the unit. One teacher kept extensive records on the unit that she taught in Kindergarten. Other teachers were resistant to sharing their reactions with the staff, and often times felt that failures in the classroom reflected their own teaching inadequacies rather than assuming that the unit content was not right for that particular classroom.

Teachers reported that the project did much to foster communication among those teachers collaborating with the project. In addition to sharing their reactions freely in meetings set aside for feedback and evaluation, many teachers spent additional time discussing their problems as well as observing one another, helping each other with the techniques of teaching. This was not related only to social science. Teachers found new ways of communicating with one another about problems of teaching in general. They used one another for support, for guidance, and for sharing of new innovations. This feeling also led to an understanding that failures in the classroom were sometimes inevitable and that a teacher should not necessarily cover up her mistakes but work with the mistakes and share with other teachers so that they could avoid the same pitfalls. In this way, many teachers began to see their negative experiences as a contribution to later teaching improvement for themselves as well as for other teachers.

Teachers had different atmospheres in their classrooms. They ranged from laissez faire to a highly controlled authoritarian approach. Those teachers who stressed the importance of communication and of understanding had an easier time with the units, but generally all of the teachers felt that the content could be applied within the structure they had set up for their classroom. Several teachers who had never had small group work in their classrooms initiated such activity during one of the phases of the social science unit. They felt that it worked well. Some extended this technique of small group discussion into other areas in their classrooms. One very authoritarian teacher was surprised that the children had so many feelings and so much of an awareness of what was happening in the classroom. In the beginning of the preservice training she felt that anger would not be an appropriate topic for her first grade class, as "her children never got angry in school."

Aside from these general statements it is difficult to measure precisely how involved all of the teachers were. Perhaps the best indication of this involvement is the fact that every one of those involved this year plans to continue teaching social science units in the following years.

Problems experienced by the children.

During the course of the teaching of the two pilot units, Relations between Younger and Older Peers, and Angry Feelings, teachers encountered a number of common difficulties in their work with the children. They were encouraged to report these to the project staff so that revisions in the suggested methodology and in the resource materials might be guided by such observations. Included among these observations were the following:

(1) The children were not fully prepared to utilize the skills that were necessary in the learning of the unit. Some of these skills which seemed to require special training for the children were role-playing, how to observe, how to work in groups, how to be a discussion leader, and how to participate in a class discussion. It will be noted in the final chapter in this report that there will be an effort to create units which have as their main purpose the development of these skills by the children.

(2) The vocabulary was new to many of the children. They often needed extra help with the words of social science. Teachers resolved this problem in different ways. Some gave special attention to defining new words as they were introduced. Others had children keep vocabulary note books. When pupils came across a new word, they would include it in their note book and learn the meaning through use of the word in the course of the unit. Sometimes misconceptions needed to be corrected. "Personality" seemed to imply popularity to some children,

or was attributed a value weighting, such as, "He has a good personality." Personality was usually seen as a trait of an individual rather than as a dynamic system. "Behavior" usually meant to be good, or to obey, rather than the way a person relates to his environment.

(3) Sometimes the children were bored. The teachers felt that this may have been because of their own deficiencies in teaching the unit. It was more generally felt, however, that the units need to be revised in some respects so that the study of social science will be an exciting and stimulating experience for the children. One specific problem needing attention, according to the teachers, was the use of the behavior specimen over and over again. They felt it was generally "milked dry."

(4) The application of the scientific process of problem solving to the study of social problems was not always understood by the children, nor in some cases by the teachers. The tendency to solve social problems by the application of preconceived modes of behavior, or by the application of a set of adult values often seemed to overwhelm the attempts to be scientific.

Skills Necessary for Effective Teaching of Social Science

Experience with these pilot in-service training activities with teachers has made it clear that certain teacher skills and techniques are necessary in order to teach social science effectively in the classroom. Those identified by the teachers as being of greatest relevance were:

(1) Role-playing

(2) How to prepare children for observation.

(3) How to set up and manage work in small groups.

(4) How to develop and use diagnostic instruments.

(5) How to lead a class discussion.

(6) How to collect and analyze data.

(7) How to collect and evaluate feedback from children.

Many of these skills are not only important for the teaching of social science but can be used in other parts of the curriculum; e.g., skills such as working in small groups and leading class discussion. At the beginning of the training program we assumed teachers would have some of these general skills and could implement them in the teaching of the unit. This was not a valid assumption. While there definitely was and will be a variability of skill among the teachers involved in the teaching of social sciences, it is now our intention to deal directly with these skill areas in order that teachers needing special assistance may not be handicapped in the teaching of the unit. Somewhat more detailed descriptions of the experiences teachers reported relative to four of these skills areas, together with some ideas for future activities that may help other teachers improve their skills, are included in the next paragraphs.

Role-Playing.

The success of the units taught in the classrooms depended in great part on the ease with which the teacher could present the role-played specimen of behavior and arouse interest and thought on the part of the students in her classroom. The specimen for behavior served as a basis for future analysis activities in each classroom. Poorly planned and executed performances were not received by the students in a serious manner and consequently the value of the subsequent learning experience was hindered.

Many teachers have had some experience with creative dramatics so it is also important to emphasize the differences between using role-playing as a controlled specimen of behavior rather than an experience in creative expression. In role-playing the teacher is an active force in the creation of the drama; she is the controller of the actions, feelings and motives. It requires some of the skills needed in creative dramatics; teachers have to help the actors move into the role they are portraying and present an action-laden and stimulating performance.

Role-playing was given great emphasis in each of the schools. Teachers were trained in each school in the techniques of role-playing by the project coordinator and the demonstration teacher. In the training sessions there were demonstrations; teachers practiced with each other and then role-played with children after school, before they tried it in their classroom. Teachers were quick to learn and most could conduct a role-playing sequence after one or two training sessions.

The following design was created for teachers to highlight the main points of role-playing and to allow teachers to follow a planned sequence.

(1) Teacher creates the situation (i.e., plans what she wants to present). She explains the situation to the children (e.g., You are reading a book).

(2) Children fill in the details with regard to the situation, so they can become an active participant in the role. (e.g., Where are you reading the book? What book are you reading?)

(3) Child acts out parts of the skit as the teacher explains it. (e.g., What will your expression be when you read an exciting part?)

(4) Children act out whole skit.

(5) Teacher makes improvements. If the child has included something in the skit that is not in the plan, it is legitimate to cut it out. The purpose is not only for expression.

(6) Practice enough so the child will feel comfortable presenting it in class. Usually three or four times are sufficient.

(7) Present finished product to the class.

For future development, we would like to explore the possibilities of teaching role-playing through a variety of sources that do not require that a member of the project staff communicate directly with teachers. Some of these possibilities are (1) demonstration through a film, (2) demonstration through a record or tape, (3) use of resource material such as:

> Chesler, M. and Fox, R. Role-Playing in the Classroom, Document #15 Inter-Center Program on Children, Youth and Family Life, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

We feel teachers may be sufficiently interested in this technique to utilize resources in teaching themselves the skill of role-playing.

How to prepare children for observation.

Observation is an important tool of the social scientist; for this reason it is one of the important aspects of the units. Children, without training, are not acute observers and in many cases do not bother to watch an entire sequence without making global interpretations from one small aspect of behavior. It was found that children need preparation in the skill of observing human behavior.

It was necessary to emphasize to the teachers the importance of directing the observation; to assist children in determining what was important to watch. Teachers who merely said, "watch what happens" did not get the amount and quality of observational material as those teachers who directed the children's observations. In order to direct attention to specific aspects of the role-playing sequence, the preparation of observation tools was found to be effective. Teachers needed aid in:

(1) Determining what aspects of the skit were important to watch.

(2) Directing the attention of the students to those aspects by preparation of observation tools.

Many of the teachers who had difficulty in directing children's observations were those who were unclear of the purpose of the entire skit; they were not sure what they wanted the children to learn from the experiences in the behavioral specimen.

Therefore, future efforts of the project will be directed toward: (1) clarifying the purposes of each phase of the unit so teachers are clear on what the children should be learning; (2) developing methods of making observation interesting for the children such as skill games of observation; (3) preparing several kinds of observation tools (open-ended questionnaires, multiple choice questions) so that teachers can direct the observations of their particular classrooms.

How to set up and manage work in small groups.

While it is not absolutely necessary to have small groups working at any stage of the unit, it is likely that the goals of the unit will be best realized when students have an opportunity to share and discuss problems among themselves. It is also an important learning experience for children to understand the dynamics of leadership and membership of groups. Problems of working in groups will be the specific focus of one of the social science units now in the planning stage. However, it can only become a meaningful experience when children are given the opportunity to work in small groups and experience the importance of concepts of leadership and membership. Most teachers subscribed to the importance of the experience of a small group for the children in their classrooms. Some were, however, fearful that they would lose control of the children and that little work would be accomplished.

There were a variety of teacher backgrounds in the use of small groups. Teachers who had used small group work served as informal consultants for other teachers. There was some group discussion of the skills required to implement effective group work. We found the following points must be made explicit for teachers to organize their classrooms for small group work:

(1) Select members of the group; sociometric choice, reading ability, leadership ability or interest may serve as bases for selection procedure.

(2) Structure the task for each group; the children must understand the work goals and how they should be accomplished.

(3) Structure the physical surroundings within the room; group desks in circles away from other groups, use extra rooms or hallways.

(4) Understand problems of leadership and membership. This may be accomplished by a more extended study of group process in the class. This was not done in any of the classrooms this year, but two teachers who presented a brief training program of ten to fifteen minutes for the leaders in each group found that they dominated the group less and that there was more active participation among the members.

Future plans call for the development of a unit on How to Work in Small Groups. This should aid understanding of group process for children. For the teacher there is an abundance of published material on group process, which could be compiled for easy reference. References such as the following may be helpful:

Cunningham, Ruth, et al. Understanding Group Behavior of Boys and Girls, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951.

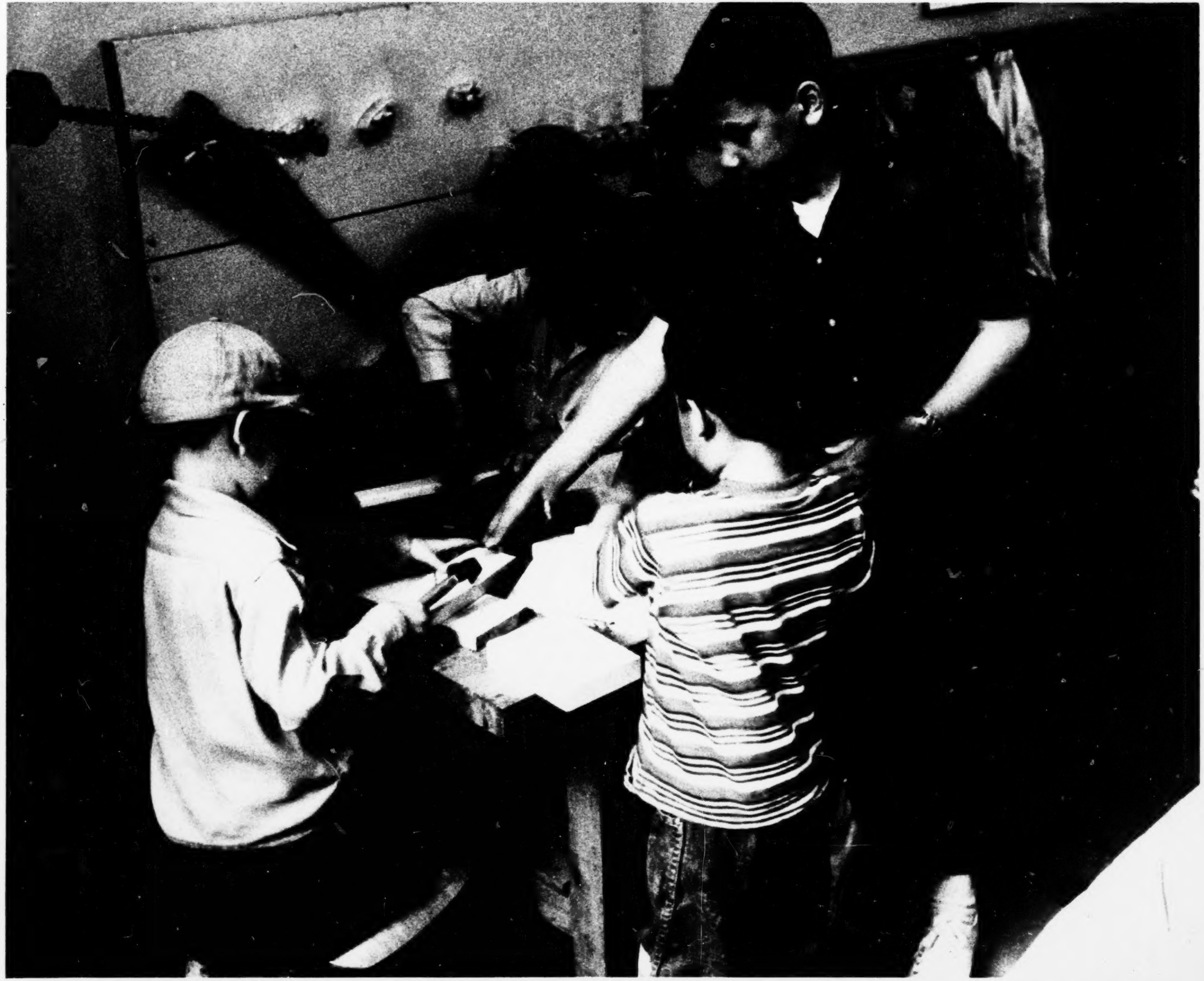
Miel, Alice, et al. Cooperative Procedures in Learning, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952, Chap. 15.

Strang, R. Group Work in Education, New York, Harper Brothers, 1952.

Epperson, D. Using The Classroom Group to Help the Individual, Annotated bibliography. Mimeographed. Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, 1962.

How to set up and use diagnostic instruments.

Teachers use diagnostic instruments in some aspects of their curriculum, such as reading, in order to understand what the child already knows and what he needs to know. Diagnostic instruments, however, have not been used so generally in other areas such as social studies, or physical or biological science. With the increased use of sociometric tests and the increased sophistication of teacher's knowledge about informal and interpersonal aspects of the classroom, teachers are gnerally anxious to discover what their students know about a subject area and what attitudes they hold about that subject area. The use of diagnostic tools for an evaluation of teacher performance as well as student evaluation of his own performance is given emphasis in the social science units. Teachers were willing to administer and code diagnostic instruments prepared by the project staff. It was found, however, that the instruments that were devised did not accomplish the goals that were intended. There needs to be revision of the instruments so that they are meaningful to the teacher as well as simple to administer and to code. Evaluation is an important part of learning, as well as teaching. Teachers need additional training in the use and meaning of diagnostic material.



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CHAPTER V

IMPLEMENTATION OF POSITIVE CROSS-AGE RELATIONSHIPS

In this chapter there are presented descriptions of two recent pilot projects designed to implement cross-age relationships. The first took place in two elementary schools; the second occurred at a summer day camp.

Overview of the Elementary School Cross-Age Project

A sixth grade and Junior Kindergarten cross-age linkage.

In 1961 twenty-four from a class of twenty-seven sixth graders volunteered to help in the junior kindergarten. The children worked in the younger classroom in pairs, a boy and a girl, three days a week during the busiest time from 9:00 to 9:45.

They helped the younger ones develop an awareness of one another; they utilized techniques of including several age mates in their imaginative play, and skills of meeting the needs of classmates. They helped them learn to build, paint, paste, and listen to music and stories. They helped them resolve interpersonal conflicts and to make friends. They helped them find answers to their problems, and to fix things that needed attention, from the sand castle that fell down to a rabbit that needed more food.

Each week a new pair of sixth graders would come down for three days. The sixth grade group had been divided into two sections of twelve each. One section worked the first semester and the other section worked the second semester.

On Tuesday and Thursday afternoons from 1:00 to 1:45 P.M., the section would meet as a whole for a seminar on how olders could help youngers. Using their experience in the classroom as a common frame of reference, they discussed what was the goal for the little ones; how to teach them to become independent, to solve problems, to deal with aggression. Through role-playing they learned preventive techniques which minimized hostile feelings and ways of helping children feel successful, be creative and learn new skills.

Sixth grade academic helpers in fourth, third, second and first grades (1962-1963).

The junior kindergarten experience proved so successful for the sixth graders that the next fall sixth graders in two schools were used as academic assistants in the fourth, third, second, and first grades.

They helped individuals in the younger classrooms with the skills of reading, writing, arithmetic and spelling. They were also used as assistants in physical education, and laboratory assistants in social studies, working as group discussion leaders and acting in behavioral specimens presented for observation and study. Each academic helper had a helping relationship to one young pupil.

In both of these settings data were collected on the process of cross-age relations, and on the effects of the special program.

Adult intervention and support.

Our field staff was attempting to discover what interventions were required to make the cross-age design a significant learning experience for both the older and younger children. In both settings the tendencies of the children were toward negative or disinterested cross-age relations, and the practices of the school supported segregated age-graded activities. The following activities emerged:

Seminars. Seminars on how to help youngers were given to each group of older children before they began to work as assistants. Here they learned through discussion and role-played episodes how to approach youngers constructively; how to make them feel positive toward being instructed and toward the area of learning. They learned what sorts of expectations were realistic for the child of a particular age, and for the individual they were to help. They learned techniques of correcting errors in ways that were encouraging rather than discouraging. They practiced giving praise, yet being sure that the pupil's standard of performance was maintained. They practiced how to take them from the level where they were now successful to a higher level in ways that were challenging and satisfying.

Training in academic procedures. After the older children had had some orientation to relating to younger children, which included how to make them feel appreciated, useful and constructively purposeful, they had a training session with the academic teacher whom they were helping. He or she explained how the drill (or whatever she had planned for the olders to give) would help the younger learners. She explained how they were to carry out the particular assignment and gave them practice working with each other to see if they understood the method and procedure before teaching a younger child.

At-the-elbow help. When the older assistant met for the first time with the child whom he was going to help, someone was nearby to give him at the elbow help if need be. One fourth grade teacher had her sixth grade assistants come in before school at 8:30. Only two or three assistants were working at the same time. This made it possible for the teacher to keep an eye on how things were going and to make suggestions if they seemed appropriate.

Most of the tutoring was done at the same time the rest of the class was studying the subject, as in reading period or arithmetic class. The older assistant would work with his child close enough to the teacher for her to make suggestions. An example of this at-the-elbow help from the first day of tutoring wasan instance where neither the pupil nor his older tutor knew the meaning of a spelling word. The teacher came to the rescue with "Jim, did you know all my fourth graders have a dictionary in their desks?" Jim picked up this lead. "Say! A dictionary of your own! That's great. Let's look it up." The at-the-elbow helpers also supported good practices by giving positive remarks afterward. "Did you notice how pleased Joe was when you said he was almost right--that it would be CAP if we covered the 'L'? And how he got it right away when you asked him now to sound the 'L' after the 'C'. You neatly turned his mistake into a constructive learning experience. You were very sensitive to his need to succeed."

At-the-elbow aid in the early stages helps the young assistant to become confident in using his newly acquired teaching techniques. It gives him the feeling of success that teachers want him to give his younger pupil. At the same time it lets the teacher keep a quality control on his performance.

Direct teaching of cross-age relations. In order to have the younger children learn how to ask for help and how to give appreciation for help received, as well as to have the olders understand better the dynamics involved in relating to younger children, we gave a social science unit on older-younger relationships in all classrooms involved in the project.

This brought up for general discussion such questions as the forces that keep olders and youngers apart; the forces that draw olders and youngers together; various concepts of dimensions of "bigness"; what olders like about youngers; what youngers like about olders; and how to ask for help; how important it is to feel you can help. In this way both youngers and olders gained a better understanding of the resources they can be to each other.

An interesting illustration of typical relations between olders and youngers comes from the account of one of these teaching sessions:

"We are interested in people," said the teacher to the class of sixth graders. "You tell me every day how people act. The first unit we are going to be studying in social science is how younger children and older children act toward each other. What sorts of things have you observed at school or at home between youngers and olders?"

Child -- Doug Winters was in a fight at recess with a bunch of little kids.

Boy -- Mike Reeves was pushing around on the play ground at lunch.

Girl -- Some bigger kids were taking lunch away from a little kid.

Child -- A big kid was shoving a little kid in the mud on purpose as we were coming in from recess.

Child -- Big kids are always bossing little kids.

There were other remarks, all on this order. Nothing constructive was reported in older-younger observed relations.

The teacher had anticipated this and had planned how she could lead the class into talking about helpful relations she knew they had experienced. She reminded them of a little pre-school girl, a daughter of one of the lunch assistants for whom the class as a whole baby sits while her mother is on lunch duty. "How do you think Sherry feels about you big boys and girls?"

Child -- She's scared of us.

Another Child -- A couple of kids were cheating her out of her milk the other day.

Finally, one rather small boy said, "I don't think she's scared. I heard a lot of the kids saying things like 'Hello, cutie pie!' to her."

Teacher -- Does she like to come?

They admitted she did. The teacher told them she had noticed that some of her boys and girls were helping Sherry to write, and some had taken her to the library and read to her.

The teacher tried another tack with the children. "How many of you have brothers or sisters?" They all raised their hands. One boy said under his breath, "I got one, but I don't like him." The teacher continued "How many help your brothers or sisters?" There was no response. "I know some of you have told me things you do for your brothers or sisters at home. Come on, now, fess up." Still there was no response. "Don't some of your little brothers and sisters have a lot of questions about homework they want you to answer?" One boy said in a very disgusted way "My little brother has all these questions;every night he wants to know so I have to tell him the answers." Another, perhaps encouraged by this statement admitted "Sometimes I help her and sometimes I don't." There is obvious embarrassment about the idea of stating that they help youngers.

The teacher then asked directly, "How many here have younger brothers and sisters they have to help get dressed in the morning?" About a third of the class raised their hands. "How many have brothers and sisters whom you have to help on the bus?" Several raised their hands. "How many take care of smaller brothers and sisters after school?" There were several who responded to this, too.

The teacher reminded the class about a unit they had been studying on Russia. They all remembered it with enthusiasm. "When we were studying Russia, how many of you had older brothers and sisters you asked to help you with getting information about it?" Six or eight children raised their hands.

"What about your older brothers, Larry?" the teacher asked a large boy who had not responded to anything, "Do they ever help you?"

"They are unpredictable," Larry answered, "If one is helping, the other one teases."

It is interesting to note that these same children, once helping was legitimized by adults, showed great enthusiasm for it and volunteered eagerly to act as assistants in the lower grades.

Evaluative comments from interviews with participants in the pilot projects.

About the learning by youngers.

The fourth grade teachers kept records on children's progress.

> The Pott twins are finding their academic assistance very helpful. Both boys were helped by two girls and wanted to continue to receive the assistance. They treated these girls as they would real teachers.
>
> Robert has continued his interest in reading since his work with a sixth grade academic helper. Previously, he would hardly ever pick up a book to read.
>
> Jackie was to help Chuck choose and read a library book. After successfully finding a book on Monday the boys returned to the room and began reading it. Chuck became so interested he did nothing but read his book all day. Jackie returned on Tuesday morning to see how far Chuck had gotten and was much surprised to find that Chuck had covered four chapters. Jackie took some phonetic flash cards (which was his own idea) and showed Chuck a method of analyzing words. Chuck was very enthused about finishing the book and getting another. This was a complete change in Chuck's attitude toward reading. Previously, he had no interest in reading a library book.
>
> Raymond has responded very well the last two weeks. He finished his arithmetic assignment and is more alert to everything going on. The added attention motivates him to read, to do his artihmetic, and to want to get his work done.

> Since having individual attention Ronnie is getting seven and eight spelling words right on his weekly tests for the first time. Before he would not even write them down.
>
> The status of boys and girls in their own classroom has been increased by special attention of sixth grade helpers. Fourth graders have learned that trained sixth graders can be of great assistance in helping them with academic work. The added drill has increased the learning of my slow group and has given them a better feeling about themselves. The limited enrichment program given by sixth graders motivated top pupils and middle pupils to do more and better school work.

A first grade teacher reported:

> Doris volunteered to read, which is quite unusual. She seems to be more confident of herself after reading with helper Lynette.
>
> A new girl in the room was asked to look for the "best" reader in her reading group. She chose a girl who had been having special reading help from a sixth grader because of her previous slowness.

<ins>About the learning of the olders</ins>. A sixth grade teacher reported:

> I was the at-the-elbow supervisor for physical ed. helping. Three sixth grade-fourth grade pairs in basket ball and one in tumbling were working at once. It was the second or third time for most of them. It was a perfect example of this kind of field work as you could hope for. The helpers were prepared; they had a friendly but business-like approach and the fourth graders had a sense of accomplishment as they practiced the skills of shooting, passing and forward rolling. With good preparation of the helpers a larger number of pairs might very well work with one supervisor after the first period.
>
> David, the youngest of three at home, was able to make a second grade child feel big by telling him he had made a good comment in his discussion group. I discussed the situation with David later, telling him I was pleased with his contribution. It seemed to me that he, himself, had a feeling of success and a beginning toward different techniques of relating to others. It would be unlikely that he could or would be observed in an incident such as this with his own class. David in the past has shown little inclination to make others feel big.

> The sixth graders and fourth graders were walking down stairs on their way to physical education field work in a very friendly and relaxed way. The students earlier in the year, if they were together at all, would have been pushing, shoving, or at best ignoring each other. I've noticed this friendly relationship develop in two or three sessions of physical ed. field work.
>
> Bill commented to Linda concerning a spelling session in the third grade. "That child took so long spelling that word I wanted to hit him. But, of course, I didn't. I was patient."
>
> The children return from helping sessions with an increased will to do well in their own work. This made the time spent on the work in class more effective. It increased the self respect and belief in their own ability of all of my defeated children, thereby contributing much to making them capable of learning.

Answers some sixth graders gave when asked what they had learned from helping youngers.

> What do you know now that you didn't know before about this age child? (About junior kindergarten - 4 1/2 years old)
>
> "They all have troubles. You wouldn't think they had troubles. Everyone has problems. They don't like to be told what to do. They want to make up their own minds. They like to do things themselves without help."
>
> What did you learn about the teacher's role you didn't know before?
>
> "Sometimes everyone thinks teachers are real mean and you realize now they just try to help you."
>
> About the value to adults. A sixth grade teacher reported:
>
> "There was less time spent this year straightening out altercations among the children of different ages on the playground."
>
> A fourth grade teacher says, "Having watched the bigger kids drilling fourth graders, people in our own room are more willing to help each other."
>
> "Some of the youngsters in my class are more interested in performing for an older youngster than a teacher. They helped a lot more than we could at times."

A junior kindergarten teacher said, "When the sixth graders are playing with a group ofmy children, it gives me a chance to give individual attention to children who need it but who would not otherwise have a chance to have it."

A fourth grade boy played hookey for a day and a half this Spring. He is a disturbed child who has been getting sixth grade help. Two sixth grade boys talked to him and got him to come back into the room.

About generalizations to other aspects of the children's lives.

A sixth grade teacher reports:

> "Physical education helping was temporarily suspended due to Mrs. Marrow's absence. It was a nice day and before school a most interesting ball game was played outside--3 fourth graders, 3 sixth graders and 2 fifth graders were playing ball in a friendly relaxed manner and obviously enjoying it immensely. I think it very unlikely that this degree of cooperation would have been attained last fall. One of the fourth graders and one of the sixth graders, Jack and John, were a helping pair last week. The other sixth graders, Robert and Charles, were students with much physical education helping experience. A fourth grader, John, made a very good throw to home plate which was praised by Robert and Jack. They stopped playing on time and walked up almost as a group. They asked if physical education helping could include outside activities as well as gymnasium work. Judging by the enthusiasm I think we can work it out."

The story of Linda:

Before the sessions began, a series of tests were administered to the class. Linda absolutely refused to complete one where the student is asked to rate the behavior of five other students in the class. She would not give any reason for her lack of cooperation. When asked if she would prefer to take it at some other time or in a different place, she kept shaking her head, saying, "I don't know how those kids act."

During a training session when some sixth graders were looking at how they might help fourth graders, one child turned to Linda, who has several younger sibs at home, and asked, "Linda, how do you handle your smaller brothers and sisters? I know you have some." Linda said very sullenly, "I leave'em alone. They do nothing but cause me trouble."

> When it was Linda's turn to be an academic helper in a fourth grade class she met with the fourth grade teacher and the project coordinator for a briefing. They pretended to be fourth graders that Linda was drilling in reading skills. She was very unsure of her ability and kept saying that she was afraid she would make a mistake. The teacher gave her constant reassurance and showed her many techniques for helping the younger children.
>
> When Linda went into the fourth grade, she was given one child to work with. He was a very slow reader and had difficulty with pronunciation. She started with phrases from a story the class was reading, saying them aloud and asking him to repeat them. The boy did fairly well with these and Linda kept telling him that he was doing a good job.
>
> When Linda began the flash-card drill, her student had a great deal of difficulty, getting almost every word wrong on his first attempt. Linda, however, never said, "No, that's wrong." She would always say that he had made a good try.
>
> She also gave him definitions of the words. For instance, when she held up the work "surrounded", she said, "If there were a whole lot of people around you and you were all alone in the middle--what would you be?" "Single," was the first response and Linda explained that that was close, but the right word was longer. She began to repeat the definition, when the boy broke in with "surrounded!" They both laughed; extremely pleased.
>
> When she was finished, the fourth grade teacher told her that she had done a wonderful job, asking her comments on the work the student had done. Later, Linda asked if she could go back to the fourth grade to give help in arithmetic.

Linda proved to be such a creative helper that she was chosen as one of the first sixth graders to help in the first grade, which came into the project after the sixth graders had extablished themselves as helpers. Only the best helpers were chosen to go as low as the first grade.

In April, after Linda had successfully taught in fourth, third, and first grades her teacher made this report about her:

> "Linda is now taking care of her younger brother and sister, leading them around by the hands, sharing bubble gum ("If your teacher catches you, you mustn't blame me."), taking them home on the bus. All through Linda's earlier records can be found much evidence of extreme jealousy of the younger children and consequent unkindness to them."

> "Linda, fixing her small sister's hair before school in the sixth grade room, was teasing in a nice way about the sister causing her to miss a bus. Before Linda would have done neither, but would have been very unhappy and negative. Those are the younger sibs about whom she said at the beginning of the project, 'I leave 'em alone. They do nothing but cause me trouble.'"

Our Cross-Age Camp Project

At Camp Sunlight, the day camp for children of staff members and delegates to the National Training Laboratories of the NEA at Bethel, Maine, fifty boys and girls, ages 4-12, played and worked amicably together, helping and supporting one another in side by side living situations.

What made these positive cross-age relationships possible? Why weren't the olders and youngers at war with one another as often happens when different age groups are in close proximity? Why didn't the olders snub the youngers and tell them to "get lost". Why didn't the youngers avoid the olders for fear of being teased or belittled? Or pester them for attention? It was no accident that these youngsters related supportively to one another. It came about through careful training and intervention and continual evaluation on the part of the counselors.

Goals of the camp. The camp directors and their staff had three goals in mind for each child:

(1) Individual development, including as much insight as

possible about how people can relate to each other constructively.

(2) The development of a realistic view of one's relative position of influence and need for help in the camp community.

(3) The development of skills of contributing to an evolving society.

Assumptions on which the program was built. The program by which it was hoped these goals might be realized was built on the following assumptions:

(1) Exclusively separate age groups for academic or social learning lessen the opportunities for learning.

(2) Most children would rather be friendly than quarrelsome if they knew how.

(3) Much of the process of socialization involves cross-age modeling of behavior and attitudes. This process of learning from older peers has greater potential in some areas than learning from adults.

(4) The involvement of olders in a program of collaboration with adults to help youngers will have significant learning value for the olders.

(5) Olders would have a chance to work through, at a safe psychological distance, some of their own unsolved problems of relationship to peers and sibs.

(6) The olders would have a chance to perfect the skills they were teaching--academic, social, physical education, arts and crafts, etc.

(7) Human relations skills and problem solving can be appropriately taught at all age levels and can make a unique contribution to the socialization process.

Training design and intervention strategy to facilitate cross-age relationships. There were three types of designed interventions which facilitated positive cross-age relationships and utilization of the resources that the different ages provided.

First, the curriculum was arranged so that the children of all ages could interact with one another four times during the day: at crafts, which was the first activity of each morning; at town meetings, when the whole camp came together for discussion and mutual sharing of experiences; at lunch; and at swimming, which was usually the last activity of the day. There was also time scheduled for age groups to have separate activities taking into consideration their different interests and skills.

Second, there was specific training in cross-age relationships given the children at town meetings, during seminar when the very little ones were sleeping, and any time during the day when they tried to put into practice what they had learned and a counselor saw that suggestions were appropriate or good ideas needed to be recognized. This on the job type of training and support was called "at-the-elbow" help.

The third program intervention was training the staff. The counselors had a week together before camp opened to plan the activities, absorb a common philosophy, examine assumptions, formulate goals and discuss ways of achieving them. When camp was in session they had a half hour before camp from 8:30 to 9:00 to organize the activities of the day. There was a staff meeting every afternoon after the campers had gone home to evaluate the day, exchange ideas and plan strategy.

No attempt was made to separate families of children as they first came in. Many of them wanted to stay together at first for mutual support. This legitimized older and younger children being together in the same activity.

The first town meeting was a report on a scavenger hunt to find all the things possible to do at camp. Each team for the scavenger hunt was composed of a cross section of all ages. This was a device by which olders and youngers could get to know each other and feel useful to each other. "When you've been on someone's team you're his buddy." In reporting what they had discovered an older team member read the first three items and then coached a small teammate to read the next three when it came time for their team to report again. The first seminar session was devoted to how olders can help youngers without having the youngers interfere with the older's good times.

Problem areas and "problem" children were spotted the first day, and the first staff meeting included a discussion of how to help them. If there was a camper who was seen as a critical problem, two counselors were assigned to the activity he or she chose to be in--one to carry out the activity, one to be an "at-the-elbow helper" for the child.

Problem areas which need to be understood by everyone were spotted and discussed at staff meeting and plans made to bring these up at town meeting. Each counselor had 3 by 5 cards to jot down during the day any constructive or non-constructive cross-age interactions and the interventions that were made. These notes were shared at staff meeting each afternoon and used to plan further helpful strategy.

Examples of counselor interventions that helped cross-age relations. (1) All teasing, belittling and unfairness were stopped whenever they were observed. The counselor tried to have an immediate on-the-spot interview with whoever was involved in behavior of this type to determine why he or she was doing it and suggest better ways of achieving the same purpose.

The counselor and/or the rest of the staff tried to discover something the teasing youngster was good at which he could do for the benefit of the group or could teach to a younger or less experienced child. This gave him or her a new way to be "big" in younger-older relations. An example of this was an eight-year-old boy, spotted as a bully the first day. Counselor Larry in an on-the-spot discussion with him found that he was good at canoeing. The second day he was given a canoe test and the third day he had an opportunity to teach canoeing during swimming period. On the fourth day he was seen teaching a four-year-old boy and a six-year-old girl how to play tether ball. Armed with this information, shared at the daily after-camp staff meeting, any counselor could mention how helpful it was for Jackie to teach the youngers what he could do so well already. If the counselor acted quickly he could initiate such a comment before Jackie did something else that was destructive. In a research project Jackie was one of the campers who was followed all day the second day of camp and again the third day of the second week to record change in behavior, if any. The first observation record shows a counselor intervention almost every three minutes to stop disruptive action. The second time Jackie was observed, nine days later, there were only four such episodes recorded for the whole day, and also some efforts of a helping nature. None occurred on the first day of observation.

The staff would sometimes talk over children's behavior patterns with parents. Two pieces of pertinent information often resulted from conferences with the family. Light was shed on surmised causes which brought more understanding and more wisdom from which to plan strategy for change. Secondly, hidden talents were discovered. A child might have a musical instrument he had never mentioned, or perhaps he had a pet he could bring to camp.

The staff kept in mind that they were not in competition with the family and that parents are at the other end of the continuum in cross-age relations.

(2) The staff felt that one way to lessen aggression in the camp community was to lessen frustration. To that end they tried to treat each camper as they hoped the campers would treat each other. They praised them whenever possible. They did not take cooperative behavior for granted but called attention to it and thanked people for it. They tried to word all "don'ts" in terms of alternative "do's", with stated reasons. Instead of "Don't touch the saw!" - "Stay away from the saw. It's sharp." They passed on these ideas as techniques for older children to use with youngers.

(3) Whenever possible the counselors sent youngers for help to olders who had developed skills in relating to them and excelled in the special area in which the younger was experiencing difficulty. In order to free a counselor to help an older, the older was often asked

to take over the counselor's job helping a younger. "Ted, I'm busy right now starting a basket for Timmy. But if you could get him started (you know how from starting one yesterday, you remember?), then I'd have a chance to fix the reed for your handle."

(4) Counselors tried to interpret actions of littlers to biggers and vice versa whenever there seemed to be danger of misunderstanding. Six-year-old Johnnie, idolized the big boys. He would sit fascinated watching them build boats and birdhouses. A ten-year-old carpenter who had been sawing suddenly needed a hammer. Johnnie was up and away in search of one. The ten-year-old hadn't noticed that Johnnie's efforts were on his behalf, so he went looking for a hammer too. A counselor, standing near, saw this. He moved inconspicuously to a shelf where the older boy had alreay picked up a hammer and explained the situation to him. "Oh, I thought he was getting it for himself. I see what you mean," was the ten-year-old's response as he moved nearer Johnnie pretending he hadn't found a hammer yet, thus giving his admirer the opportunity to complete the first self-initiated act of helpfulness anyone at camp had seen him make.

(5) Some general causes of destructive behavior were discussed in seminar and town meeting, and skill practice was given in coping constructively with manifestations of show-offiness and aggression

Seminar. There was seminar period after lunch three or four times a week. Interpersonal relationship problems and remedial techniques were discussed with children over nine who wanted such an opportunity. This period legitimized the bringing up of anything the older campers wanted to talk about. Among the many subjects that were discussed were "How shy boys and girls need help in getting acquainted," "Older children are sometimes mean to younger ones because someone has been mean to them or because they are unhappy and frustrated about something," "How to make an older child feel better if he starts teasing rather than letting him get you mad," "How to help a younger brother or sister not to be a nuisance when you have an overnight guest your age," "How to make friends," "How to include a third child in a group of two already playing."

The first seminar session was on how to promote constructive relations with youngers; how to help them feel useful, admired and successful. Children role-played for evaluation and practice various suggestions of how you could be friendly, make a younger child feel important and then help him find someone else to be interested in or friends his own age to play with. This would get him happily engaged and allow the older to go about his own business without making the younger feel rejected. Later that afternoon a ten-year-old boy rushed up to the counselor who had lead seminar. "I did it," he said. "I did what we were talking about in seminar. See that six-year-old swinging on the rope? He asked me to play whiffle ball with him. But I didn't want to, so I showed him what I'd been braiding out of gimp. He gave me some gimp he'd found on the ground. I looked around like mad to find something he might like besides me. I saw that one of the swinging ropes was free. I pointed it out to him and he's been swinging on it for ten minutes now." At pick up time that day the six-year-old greeted his mother with "Hey, you know what? I have a new older friend."

Town meeting. Town meeting was another time when the children were trained in concepts of relating to each other. This was the half hour before lunch set aside for discussing, planning, sharing, or talking about whatever anyone thought was important. There was an agenda board on which anyone could write his name if he wanted a chance to say something. There was also an opportunity to speak from the floor if one had an idea on the spur of the moment. Campers and counselors disseminated information here. They presented their reactions and suggestions. They learned to listen to each other. Whenever the staff thought it useful to discuss with the camp as a whole an aspect of interpersonal relations it was brought up at town meeting. Often the discussion was opened by a role-playing scene showing the effect of certain action so the children would have a common experience from which to talk. For example, the staff knew the older children liked to help, but thought that they would enjoy it more if help were solicited by the youngers instead of being a responsibility passed on to them by overworked counselors. So a role-playing session planned for town meeting was a scene of how a younger can ask an older for help, followed by an interview of both actors to see how they felt. The older said she felt good about being asked and good that she _could_ help. Asked if she thought the younger boy was stupid because he didn't know how to start his gimp braiding she said she thought he was very wise to ask if he didn't know how and that it was bright of him to come to an older child when there was no counselor free to help him. The younger boy was asked how he felt about the help he'd gotten from the twelve-year-old and he said, "Just fine."

Ways of making friends; how old campers can make new ones feel at home and less shy on their first day; times when adults need help from children, were some of the other town meeting discussions begun with a role-played situation.

At-the-elbow help. At-the-elbow training was any type of support given via counselor intervention during the day as the occasion arose. Here are examples of three kinds of at-the-elbow help.

(1) Reinforcing good human relations practice. The counselors tried never to take any show of kindness for granted. On passing a youngster, a staff member might say casually, "It was very thoughtful fo you to help Tony catch the frog this morning. I guess you noticed how sad he looked when everyone else had found one and he still hadn't." (The 3 by 5 cards gone over each afternoon were sources of opportunities for this type of praise.)

(2) Bringing the needs of others to the awareness of children who can help fill these needs. A little boy was trying to play a ring toss game near the crafts shelter where some older children were working on baskets. He was not having much success. The counselor helping with the baskets called the older ones' attention to the small child's difficulty. "Billy doesn't seem to be having any luck getting those rings on the do-do board. Maybe if one of you suggested that he try getting a little closer he would, and then perhaps he could make one stay on."

(3) Making suggestions for improving interaction. Six-year old Bobby had difficulty making constructive contact with other children. He had come to camp with a pattern of grabbing what he wanted and hitting

when he didn't get it. He was an isolate and didn't know how not to be. He was playing with the four and five-year-olds who had a lake under construction.

Bobby came up to a counselor. "Everyone has had a long handled shovel for a long time now," he complained. "I want one." Fred, four years old, standing within earshot came over. "You can have this one," he said. "I'll use a rake."

The counselor took Bobby aside. "Say, that was a nice thing for Fred to do. It isn't often a four-year-old is willing to share like that. If you thank him he'll know that you were glad he did and maybe he'll do it again another time. But don't tell him I told you to."

Bobby went over to Fred, now raking near a running faucet. "Thank you," he said tentatively.

Fred kept on raking. The counselor beckoned to Bobby. "The water is running. I don't think he heard you."

Bobby went back to Fred. "Thank you!" he yelled. There was a pause. Bobby's face fell.

Suddenly Fred turned to him. "You're welcome." Bobby and the counselor looked and smiled at each other, knowingly.

Without these two at the-elbow boosts toward constructive interaction Bobby might well have remained isolated in a big group. Now three things have happened to him to give him a feeling of closeness with others. He had a successful partnership relation with an adult in behalf of a smaller child who needed his support. He initiated a friendly contact and was responded to in an appreciative way. He had a successful bit of practice in using a constructive interaction technique which he understood and hopefully could put into effect again.

Carry over from seminar and town meeting discussions to home life. Parents have reported what seem to be positive results of these training experiences. "Mike, age four, no longer lashes out with his fist when he's frustrated and angry with Jeri, his six-year old sister, but comes out with, 'O.K., I'll try and we'll talk it out.' Jeri is thrilled with this procedure and encourages it because she no longer gets clobbered."

"Our eight-year-old was picking a fight with our six-year-old while getting into the car to go home from camp. Our eleven-year-old girl would ordinarily have been very upset by this. But today she said, 'I know how you feel, John. You're not really mad at Robert. You're mad because you lost your lanyard.' 'That's right,' said John, 'How did you know?'"

"Our eleven-year-old used to be very annoyed when his thirteen-year-old brother deliberately said things to tease him. Yesterday I heard him say quietly, 'Why are you saying something like that?'"

A look at types of children who benefit especially from cross-age experience. From our experiences we have been able to identify five types of children who appear to especially benefit from cross-age relationships.

(1) Children who for some reason find it hard to be successful with their own age groups.

Andy, age ten, was, in spite of a fine mind and an ability to organize, very immature emotionally. He could not have been accepted as a leader by the older group, in which he rightfully belonged because of his age. Here he would have had no influence. In an age segregated situation he could easily have been either an isolate or a trouble maker. Because he was free to associate with whatever age he wished he became the admired organizer of the seven and eight-year-old boys and girls who wanted to play soft ball. He was not pushed to compete with these younger ones for he was obviously better than they. A little coaching about the role of the "bigger" boy being one of helping the less skillful, together with his expert knowledge of baseball, made him a "hero" to the younger set. He had come to camp with a history of having difficulty relating to authority. His ability to provide the knowledge and organization needed by his young fans put him in a situation which related him positively to adults. The staff made the most of this piece of good fortune and kept letting him know how much his ability helped to keep things running smoothly.

(2) Children who are the youngest in their families and who have never had a chance to develop the skills of being "an older helper".

Liza, age four, the youngest of three children all at camp, started off vieing for attention by making a nusiance of herself. But soon she got the idea that "grown-upness" and attractiveness were coupled with responsibility for she saw her big sister and other twelve-year-olds being praised by counselors and admired by children as they assumed with zest the "helper" role. Seldom do smaller children in a regular age graded school situation have a chance to see bigger children acting in a "grown up" way and assuming responsibility for helping others. Neither do they have a chance to see the gratitude of younger children which is a result of this behavior. Liza began helping other four-year-olds not as expert as she. She was seen comforting a five-year-old who fell in a ditch and "teaching" a couple of six-year-olds to swim. This was a role growth opportunity which was new to the baby of the family.

Eddy, eleven, was the youngest of four boys. His family said that the best thing that happened to him at camp was the image he gained of himself as "one of the big kids." This can be a very realistic change in attitude if you have the opportunity of living and working with many children who are younger.

(3) The oldest in a family who has never had a "bigger" boy or girl to look up to or to model after.

Tommie, six, was the only boy and the oldest sibling of his family. He had little opportunity to see older boys in action. He had one mode of behavior as a "bigger" or "older" boy--that was to tease youngers and push them around. He idolized the bigger boys at camp. Much of his crafts time was spent working along side of them on the leather table or watching them construct things with wood, hammer and nails. He never saw a really "big" boy teasing or throwing his weight around. By the end of his four weeks stay at camp he had begun to pick up from them ideas of being useful. The first days of camp if Tommie had a stick in his hand it meant trouble. The last week of camp he was still tremendously interested in sticks and pieces of wood. But he used them now to help the four-year-olds and five-year-olds build houses and bridges. His family said he had begun taking a protective interest in his little sister, two, instead of teasing her.

(4) Siblings who have not had a chance before to be in the same educational environment as "equals".

Several families reported that there was more comradeship between brothers and sisters of different ages now that they had an educational experience in common which they could discuss as equals.

One family reported that they had been afraid their seven-year-old girl would be jealous when she saw her older brother hero worshipped by so many youngers. What actually happened was she became even prouder of him, herself.

(5) A younger boy or girl who has never had a chance for close observation or companionship of an older child of the same sex who can be an inspiration for taking the next step in "grown-upness".

Joe, age nine, had always been a small boy in the eyes of his sister, three years older. He was on the thoughtful, shy side. His mother reported that one day he said "I had the most wonderful day at camp today."

"Something special?" asked his mother.

"We went swimming and all, Mom, it was really great!"

Later, walking upstairs Joe was heard saying to himself, "I like Ben very, very much. I like Al very much---" Ben was twelve, Al was eleven.

His mother said "This has been Joe's first chance to identify with a boy older than himself, but not too old. Ben is the kind of boy Joe wants to be like, that he feels he could be like. Not a football hero, but a fellow who is good at sports, but likes to discuss things, too."

CHAPTER VI

RESEARCH ON THE CROSS-AGE RELATIONSHIP PHENOMENA

Paralleling the development of a social science curriculum has been our research interest in relationships between children of different ages. Growing out of an early phase of our laboratory approach to the study of social science--that of training older children to function as lab assistants, academic trainers and camp helpers of younger children--the phenomena that we have begun to study are the perceptions, relations and influence processes between children of different chronological and developmental levels.

From a very early age most children are involved in interaction with siblings who are older, or younger, or both. And in the pre-school neighborhood life there are usually a variety of significant cross-age relationships. Even a casual look indicates that cross-age interaction can be a potent learning experience of children of all ages. For instance, a child observes how older children cope with adults, what the older ones are able to do or permitted to do that he cannot do and how the younger ones seem to get more of the nurturance and attention he would like. He learns to cope with, or avoid, the greater strength and sophistication of the older ones, to exploit the younger ones, and to avoid the sanctions of adults for mistreating the weaker ones. He learns who he is supposed to regard as his equals--his age-graded legitimate associates. He develops his conceptions and expectations about what different levels of grown-upness are like, and what they mean in terms of privilege, responsibility and skills.

It seems remarkable that this process has been researched so little by students of child development, and has been utilized so little by educators and other socialization agents.

Our preliminary findings to be presented in this chapter are based upon research conducted in the past three years at the field sites which have been reported above. It should be noted at once that these findings are based upon a small number of individuals. The conclusions we have drawn are tentative. They lend support, however, to the decision to follow up these exploratory studies with a more extensive project in the near future.

Description of Sample and Methodology

Sample. Data collected from twenty-four fourth graders in a bi-racial working class school and twenty-two fourth graders in a middle class laboratory school comprise the elementary school population. Data were collected on the total population of two two-week summer camp sessions. Session I contained 51 children and Session II contained 36 children. Ages of these children ranged from four to twelve.

Methodology. A brief description of the instrumentation employed at the three field sites completed to date is presented below. Copies of the instruments employed are attached as Appendix C. These instruments represent our first attempts at data collection regarding the cross-age phenomena and have served as guides for the development of more sophisticated instruments for future research.

> Cross-age sociometric and interview. Children at the day camp were presented with pictures of all campers subdivided into four groups by age. For each age group they were asked to choose a child they would most and least prefer to be like, then to rate the others on a five-point scale. Children were then asked to choose from a list of descriptive sentences (developed from children's earlier responses in another study) those characteristics which best described the reasons for their choices.

The sociometric with pictures was feasible for even the youngest children (four years). Ability to choose descriptive qualities was a difficult task for the very young, but seven and eight year-olds had relatively little difficulty.

Observations of association. All children at the camp were observed for a comparable period of time during the two weeks of each session. An observer recorded who associated with whom and the type of interaction involved: alone--involved or not involved in some activity; parallel association--no interdependence; interdependence required by the activity; interdependence socially initiated, not required by the situation.

End-of-camp interviews. Each child was interviewed during the last two days of each camp session in order to obtain campers' perceptions of children who had been most helpful, perceptions of the characteristics of children who were models for identification, reports of childrens' learnings at camp, and the overall reactions and evaluation of each camper to the camp experience.

Paper and pencil questionnaire in the school. A structured questionnaire focused on targets of cross-age relationships and the types of cross-age associations experienced was administered by staff personnel in the two elementary school settings.

Cross-age Perceptions, Attitudes and Relations

This section begins with a review of our findings concerning how older and younger children exist for each other--the normative expectations and attitudes they hold for each other's behavior. There follows a discussion of patterns of identification and individual orientations to cross-age relationships. This will be followed by a description of the patterns of cross-age interaction as they have emerged from our data of each of our research settings.

Perceptions of olders and youngers

In response to open ended questions at the beginning of camp and a more structured question for our elementary school students concerning general perceptions children have of older and younger children, we found that both boys and girls disliked first, to be excluded by older children from many of their activities and secondly, to be the targets of exploitive or hostile acts. Both boys and girls highly value associating with older children and like older children who give them some type of help. Boys expect youngers in general to be incompetent, and perceived them as a nuisance and as demanding too much of their time and resources. Boys like youngers who are competent enough to participate in activities that the older boys like, or who will obey or help the olders.

Girls appear to experience youngers as an opportunity for nurturance and they like younger children who are cute, comical or fun. Younger children are often seen as teasing and demanding too much attention.

Cross-Age Identification

We have found in each of our three settings that boys overwhelmingly chose other boys as "children older than they whom they would most like to be like." About half of those boys with older brothers named an older brother. The median age of these older models was 12.0 years for our laboratory population and 13.5 years for our working class classroom.

Similarly, girls in the school population identified more frequently with older girls. Of those girls with an older sister, slightly less than half chose an older sister. The median age of the older models for the middle- and working-class classrooms were 11.0 and 13.0 respectively.

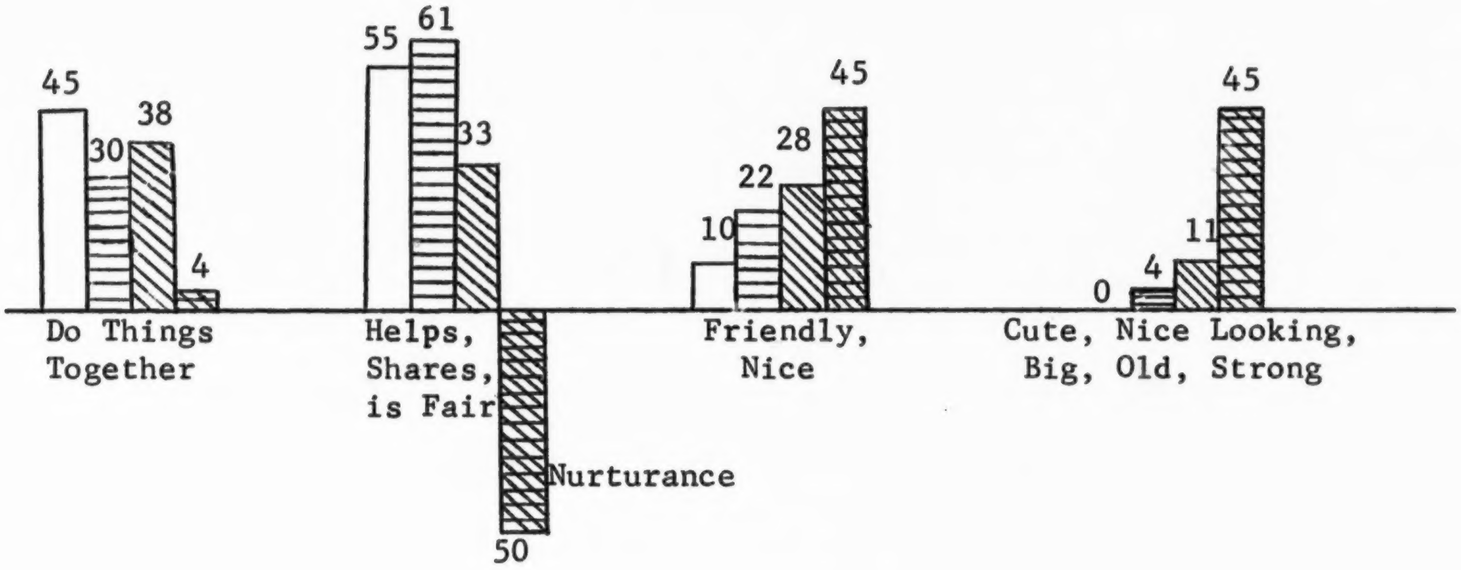
The middle class sample of boys give a rather undifferentiated response for the reason why they chose an older model. Illustrative responses were: "he's nice", "he's friendly", or "I just like him". In

TABLE 1

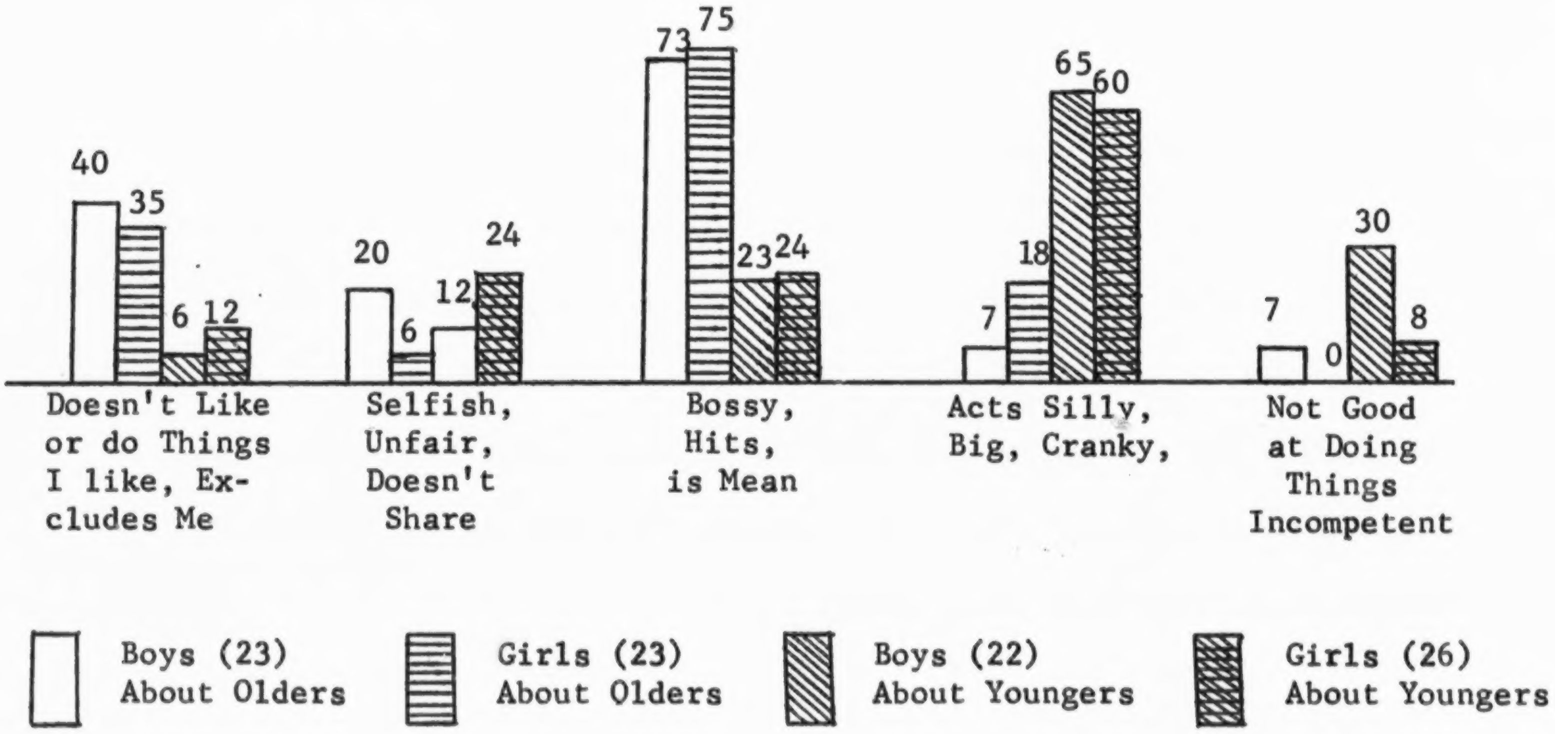
CHILDREN'S PERCEPTIONS OF OLDER AND YOUNGER PEERS

Percent of Those Responding to Each Question Who Used Each Category

BEHAVIOR AND CHARACTERISTICS LIKED



BEHAVIOR AND CHARACTERISTICS NOT LIKED



contrast our working class sample of boys gave such responses as: "he's good at sports", "he's bigger" (or older, or in a higher grade), or "because they were smart, or good students."

Both the middle- and working-class girls in our sample responded that their older models were friendly, or kind, or were popular or attractive.

We also inquired as to what our respondents would do to get an older child to like them more. Both sexes, but especially the girls, suggested "being more friendly", or "nicer", or "liking them more". Boys, but not girls, also often suggested engaging in more activities with older children (i.e., "play with them", "work with them", etc.).

The data from our cross-age camp setting supports and extends the results presented above. Children of this age range (4-12), with rare exceptions, chose models of the same sex. Males have a tendency to choose older males while females are equally likely to choose older or same age females.

However, children accepted at camp by their own age group tend to choose models more often from their own age group. Children not accepted by their age group, tend more often to choose older models. In choosing older models, friendliness, helpfulness and competency in physical skills are the most often verbalized criteria for selection. Younger models are often chosen for their physical characteristics (and presumably the attention that goes with these characteristics, [i.e., cute, pretty, comical, etc.]) or because they are seen to receive preferential treatment from adults.

Orientation toward being older or younger

Our middle class boys are oriented toward ages slightly older than their present age of 10. In contrast, our working class boys were overwhelmingly oriented toward early adulthood. The median age that middle class boys most preferred to be was 12.0 while the median for the working class boys was over 18 years. Only four boys (two from each class) preferred a younger age. While less than half of the middle-class boys chose an age greater than 18, seventy-five per cent of the working class males chose an age 18 or older.

Oriented toward late adolescence or early adulthood, working-class males mention they'd like to "get married", "get a job", "go to college", "drive a car", "play football", etc. The middle class males were much less specific in their orientations toward early adolescence, and gave such responses as--"I could do more things"; "have more fun"; or "it's fun, I like it." This class difference in orientation can not be attributed to working class children having more older sibs at home, since neither the number of older children nor the distribution of ages or sex of older sibs differs in the two samples.

Even more striking is the difference in orientation between working class and middle class females. Over eighty per cent of the working class females preferred an age of 18 or older. This was true for only one middle class girl. Less than twenty per cent of either group was oriented toward a younger age. Median age of orientation for working class girls was over 18, the median for middle class girls was 13.

Very much like middle class boys, our middle class female sample gave such responses as "it's more fun"; or "I like it". In contrast our working class girl respondents gave such reasons as: "no more school", "can get married", "can get a job" or "can go to college."

Our camp data provided us with orientations of children from four to twelve years in age. The number of children at each age and sex is too small to warrant presenting the data separately for each age. Older boys (ages 8-10; Md. = 9; N = 8). With the exception of one boy all older boys chose an age one or two years older. Oriented toward a slightly older age (similar to our middle class school sample) they responded with such reasons as being more competent at this age, being more important, or allowed more privileges (own a B-B gun, etc.).

Older girls (ages 9-12; Md = 10; N =11). Eight of the 11 girls of this age were oriented toward being older, primarily toward early adolescence. The median age preferred was 12. Only two preferred an age older than 14 (both chose 20). Girls who were oriented toward being younger ages responded that: "things were more fun then", "like to do things five-year olds do", "don't get into trouble or take things so hard." Girls oriented to older ages responded that things would be better at that age, more fun, you'd start junior high, you'd know more, could drive a car.

Younger boys (ages 5-7; Md = 7; N = 10). Seven younger boys were oriented toward an older age; the median age preferred was 8 (two chose ages beyond 18). Those oriented toward being older responded in terms of being given more responsibility for doing things on their own, being like or older than a sib, or because it is fun, you're happy, etc. Boys of this age who were oriented younger did so because friends were that age, or because other people paid more attention to younger children.

Younger girls (age 4-6; Md = 5; N = 4). All younger girls were oriented toward being older. Three of the girls chose age ten, one because you had more responsibility (could go places and do things by oneself), one because you were big and knew everything, and one because then she would be like her big sister and the other big kids. The other girl wanted to be 17 so she could get married and have a baby.

Patterns of Cross-Age Interaction

Our male school respondents reported that they spent most of their time with either older or same age children, females were equally divided between older, same age or younger.

For middle class males the median age of an older preferred playmate was 11, for working class males the median was 12. The median age of a younger preferred playmate for both groups of males was 6. All of the middle class boys and all but two of the working class boys chose other boys as their preferred same age playmate. Middle class boys were more likely to prefer an older or younger sib as a preferred playmate than were working class boys.

Middle class females reported a median age of 13 for an older preferred playmate, working class females reported a median of 12. Again for both groups the median age for a younger playmate was 6. Over one-third of our middle class girls and one-fourth of our working class sample of girls reported preferring an older brother. Approximately one-third of both samples preferred an older sister. Over seventy-five per cent of our middle class girls reported a younger sib as a preferred younger playmate (except in one case, all were sisters) while only twenty-five per cent of our working class sample responded in this manner (sex of sib evenly divided). All of our middle class girls and all but one working class girl chose another girl for a most-preferred like-age playmate.

In the summer camp we allowed for several periods during the day when it was possible for children to interact with older and younger children. We found that given this opportunity, between forty-four and seventy-six per cent of all instances of interaction for any particular age group were with children from older or younger age groups. Further, we found that about the same number of children associated predominantly with older children as associated predominantly with own age mates. Fewer predominantly associated with a younger age group.

Children who were not highly accepted as friends by their own age group (at least half of the group did not acknowledge them as a friend by sociometric choice) tended to associate with another age group, about half choosing an older and half choosing a younger age group. More than half of these children (in either case) were accepted by this age group. Of those children who were highly accepted by their age mates approximately one-third chose to associate with an older age group, most associated with their own age group, and only infrequently did a child choose a younger age group.

We found that only thirty-nine per cent of the children were highly accepted as friends by their own age group, while eighty-one per cent were highly accepted as friends by at least one age group in camp. Our camp data indicates that when the opportunity for cross-age interaction is available, and suitable training provided, such interaction will occur. Further, it appears that children may have a greater opportunity to develop supportive friendships in a non-age graded setting than is possible in a setting that includes only their age-mates.

Benefits from Cross-Age Interaction

We have begun to evaluate some of the effects of supportive cross-age interaction in such settings as have been described in earlier chapters. In Chapter V we have reviewed some of the evaluative comments from teachers, parents and the students themselves. The following data were obtained from children from the two summer camp sessions.

Resource sharing: Learning to be a helper. At the end of camp each child was asked to nominate those campers who had been most helpful during the session. A helper score was then computed for each child, determined by the number of nominations received.

In both sessions older children, aged 8-12, and particularly older girls received most of the helper ratings. The older girls (approximately one-third of the camp population) received over two-thirds of all helper nominations. Older boys (one-fifth of the camp population) received about one-fifth of all nominations. Younger children accounted for the remaining ten per cent of the helper nominations. There were only two or three males in either session who were 10 years or older, which may in part account for the large portion of helping nominations that went to females (see Table 2).

Girls tended to nominate other girls as helpers (see Table 3). Approximately eighty-five per cent of the female nominations went to other females. In contrast, only about half of the male nominations went to other males.

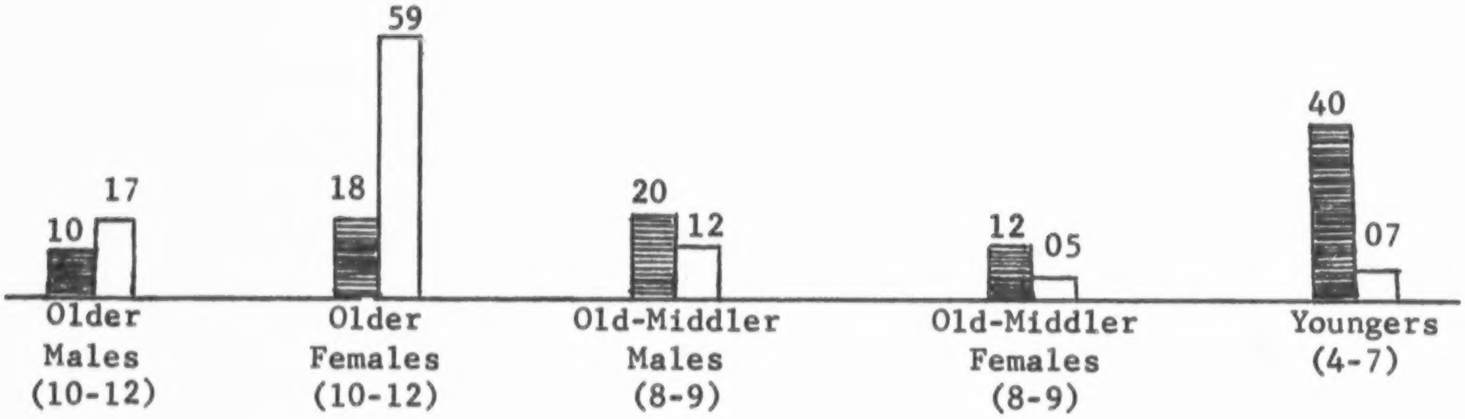
Of the 15 children chosen as identification models at the end of camp (Who would you most like to be like?), all received helper nominations. The rank order correlation between helper score and identification score at the end of camp (number of times chosen as an identification model) is $r = .636$, $p < .001$, 36 df. The rank order correlation between helper score and identification score at the beginning of camp is $r = .401$, $p < .02$, 36 df. It appears that helpfulness

TABLE 2

PERCENT HELPER NOMINATIONS EACH AGE-SEX GROUP RECEIVED COMPARED TO PERCENT AGE GROUP IS OF TOTAL CAMP POPULATION

Extent to Which Children in Various Age Groups are Nominated by Cross-age Peers as "Helpers"

SESSION I



SESSION II

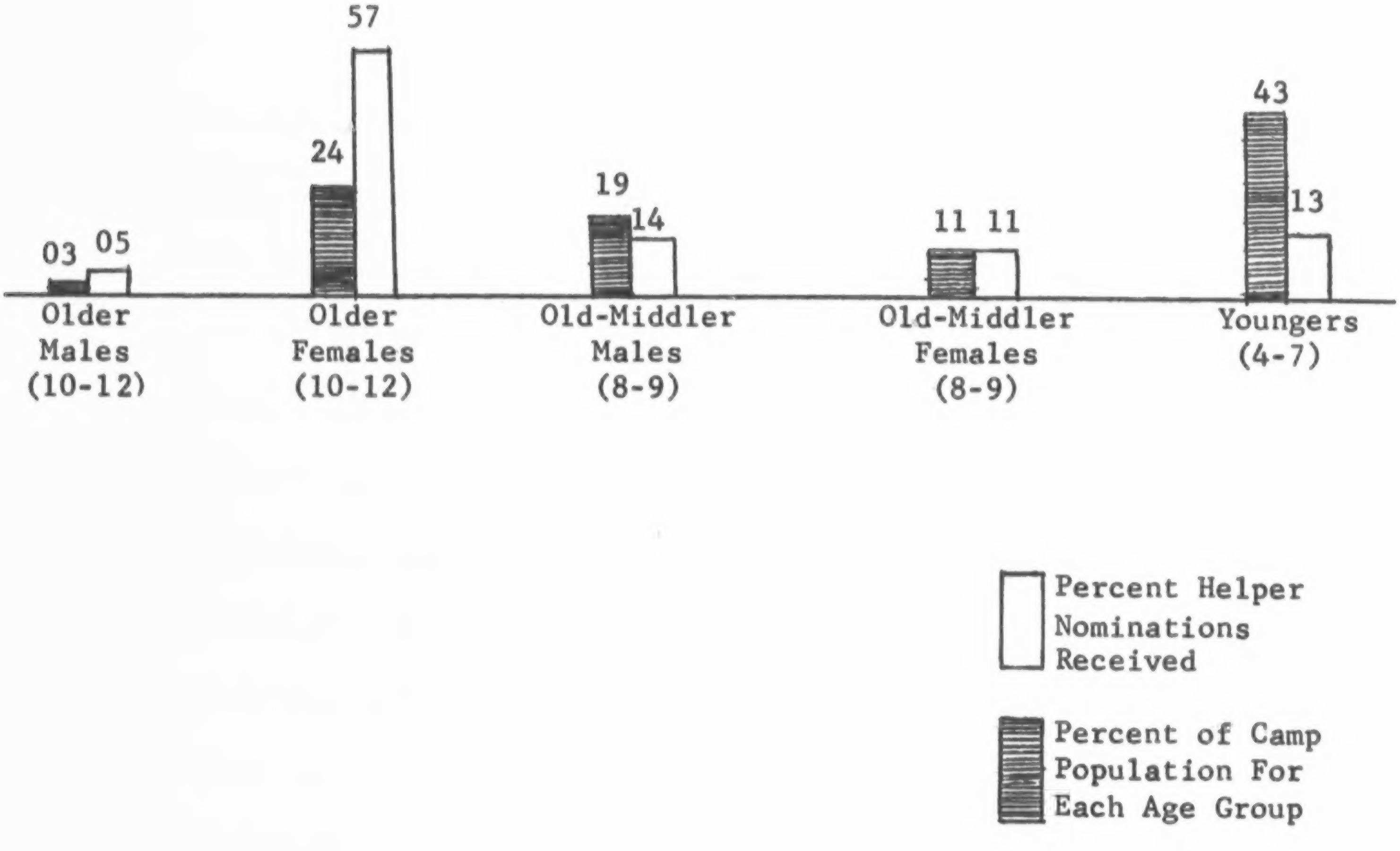


TABLE 3

EXTENT TO WHICH GIRLS AND BOYS NOMINATE THEIR CROSS AGE PEERS AS "HELPERS"

Females Give to:	Session I (Percent)	Session II (Percent)
Same Age Females	45	48
Older Females	30	32
Younger Females	06	10
Older Males	14	.025
Same Age Males	03	.05
Younger Males	.02	.025
Males Give to:		
Older Females	46	39
Older Males	24	27
Same Age Females	17	07
Same Age Males	11	11
Younger Males	02	16
Younger Females	0	0

increases in its saliency as a dimension for these children in choosing their identification models.

Peer acceptance and helpfulness. Do perceived helpers have lower status with their same-age group? Table 4 presents the relevant data. In Session I perceived helpers received significantly higher sociometric scores from their own age group than did non-helpers. In Session II there are no significant differences between helpers and non-helpers in own age sociometric ratings.

We find no evidence to support the notion that perceived helpers have lower peer group status; in the first session perceived helpers receive higher sociometric scores than do non-helpers from their peers.

Learning helper skills and attitudes. At the end of camp a checklist of learnings (see page 10, Appendix C) was presented to each camper for him to indicate on a three-point scale whether he had learned that item "a lot", "a little" or "not at all." These self-reported learnings form the basis for the following findings, all of which are based upon the older children in Session II.

A greater percentage of helpers (see Table 5) than non-helpers report having learned "a lot" those items on the checklist which we have labeled helping skills. The most pronounced differences are the two skills helping younger children feel important and how to teach someone else something that one can do better.

The same findings generally hold up when the items considered to be helping attitudes--attitudes which facilitate helping relationships--are considered. With the exception of the attitude that older children liked to be asked for help, more helpers than non-helpers report having

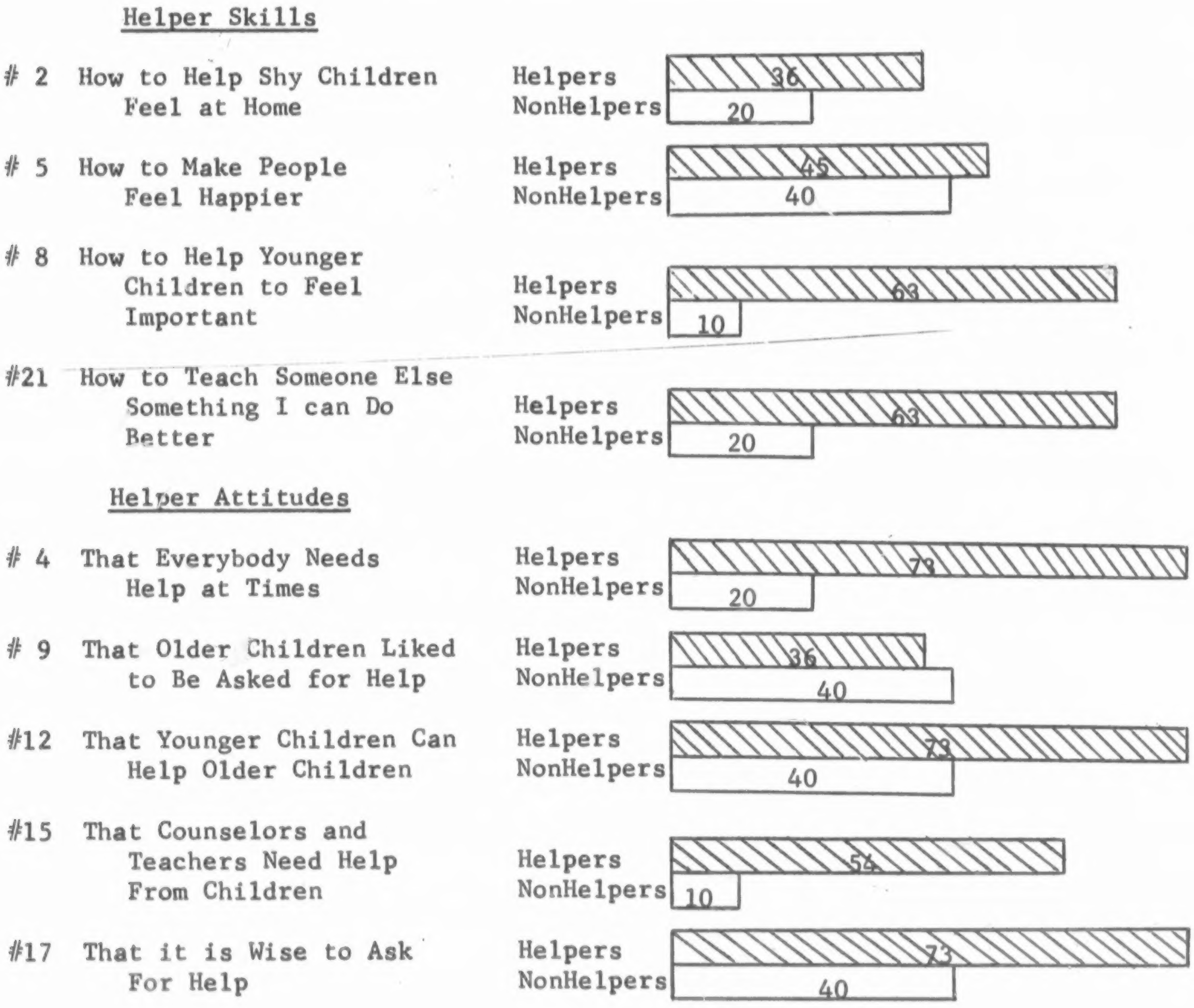
TABLE 4

MEAN SOCIOMETRIC RATING SCORE RECEIVED FROM SAME-AGE PEERS BY HELPERS AND NON-HELPERS

	N		
Session I			
		From Olders	
Older Helpers	8	31.9	t = 3.16, $p < .01$, 2 tailed
Older NonHelpers	6	22.3	
		From Old-Middlers	
Old-Middler Helpers	2	37.5	no t test possible
Old-Middler NonHelpers	14	21.7	
Session II			
		From Olders	
Older Helpers	6	20.2	t = 1.248 NS
Older NonHelpers	4	24.8	
		From Old-Middlers	
Old-Middler Helpers	5	20.8	t = 1.157 NS
Old-Middler NonHelpers	6	16.0	

TABLE 5

PERCENT OF HELPERS AND NON-HELPERS WHO REPORT LEARNING EACH SKILL OR ATTITUDE "A LOT" OR "A LITTLE"
(Only Older Children - Age 8-12)



Helpers - N = 11
NonHelpers - N = 10

learned these helping attitudes during the two week session. Although there is essentially no difference in the percent of helpers or non-helpers in their response to Item Number 9, it may be that this attitude had already been internalized by the campers and not one they learned at camp.

Repeaters. Thirteen children attended both camp sessions and constitute the group termed Repeaters.

A comparison of the mean sociometric scores of Repeaters (corrected for the number of campers in each session and omitting Repeaters' ratings of each other) revealed a significant increase in sociometric score received in the second session compared to the first session ($t = 2.26$, $p < .05$, 12 df).

A comparison of the mean number of helper nominations for Repeaters (again with the same corrections) revealed that Repeaters received a significantly greater number of helper nominations during the second session than they did in the first, ($t = 1.84$, $p < .05$, 13 df, 1-tailed test). Less than half (6) received helper nominations in the first session, whereas over seventy-five per cent (10) received nominations during the second session.

CHAPTER VII

NEXT STEPS

We plan to continue the work begun in this pilot project. Our explorations have carried us in two directions which we want to develop further:

(1) The development of social science education curriculum and teaching training materials for elementary and secondary levels.

(2) The exploration of the cross-age socialization phenomenon and ways of utilizing cross-age helping relations as a major learning resource within the school system.

A brief statement of our plans in each of these areas is as follows:

Plans for Further Development of a Social Science Curriculum

At the elementary level we plan

(1) To develop a set of about a dozen teaching units (psychology, social psychology, microsociology) with accompanying resource materials for use in the third through the sixth grades.

(2) To develop a set of teacher resource materials directed toward skills and knowledges needed for this approach to the teaching of social science (simple observation and interview methodology, role playing case presentation techniques, interpreting the fields of social science, evaluation tools).

(3) To gather evaluation data as curriculum units are being experimentally used in classrooms, and to develop an evaluation tool kit for use by teachers.

(4) To develop inservice training procedures for new teachers which will aid them in the effective use of this social studies curriculum package.

At the secondary level we plan:

(5) To develop a set of teaching units for junior high and high school students on topics involving an interdisciplinary area of social science, including psychology, social psychology, microsociology.

(6) To explore the introduction of social science training through extra-curricular activities--in particular through the student council and a social science club.

In carrying out these activities we plan to involve a number of our collaborating teachers in the revision and preparation of the curriculum units. We will involve colleagues in the School of Education (social studies and educational psychology) and in the departments of psychology, sociology, and anthropology in the critical review of the content of the units and the teacher training materials.

Plans for Next Steps in the Study and Use of the Cross-age Phenomena

The primary aim of one phase of our research will be to gather normative data from children on their perceptions of,and relations with, older and younger peers. We want to ascertain the types of cross-age perceptions, attitudes, and relations that currently exist among children and youth, while tracing the significant socio-cultural and socio-psychological factors that are associated with these. Further, we plan to assess the effects of cross-age modeling and identification processes for the child's socialization.

More specifically we plan to do the following:

(1) To complete a survey of the literature relevant to cross-age relationships, and to continue to develop a theoretical orientation to the phenomena of cross-age interaction identification and modeling.

(2) To develop and pilot test instruments suitable for data collection on cross-age phenomena at selected sites.

(3) To collect normative data from children about their perceptions, attitudes and orientation and activities with older and younger children and document opportunities for cross-age interaction in the school.

(4) On the basis of data collected in Objective 3, to study more intensively the identification process and mechanisms of olders relating to youngers and youngers relating to olders.

(5) To obtain some indication of the potentiality for more intensive and extensive cross-age interaction in the school systems. Here we will generate several plans for application from our basic research findings which might be tried out in school settings and evaluated.

Secondly, we plan to demonstrate and evaluate in elementary and secondary school settings the educational and developmental significance of greater cross-age interaction. This will involve:

(1) Developing a program to involve appropriate teachers, administrators, students and a trained consultant in utilizing cross-age relationships with the school setting.

(2) Assessment of significant concerns of children which are open to cross-age influence and the development of adequate resources in children to cope with them.

(3) Evaluating the feasability of such a program for wider innovation within the educational system.

Concluding Comments

It is our experience and conclusion that these two lines of pilot work have revealed two very strategic opportunities for bringing the resources of the behavioral science and of education into productive interplay. One of the most significant directions for the utilization of the behavioral sciences and scientists is in the development of science education for the young ones who will become the future consumers and producers of social science.

And one of the most unexplored areas of child development research and theory is the relations between children of different ages in the growing up process. The need for research is great, but so also is the need great within education to use this potential for the individualization of interaction, and the stimulation of motivation to learn among those who are alientated from the influence of adult authority figures.

APPENDIX A

WORKING DRAFT OF UNIT ON THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN OLDER AND YOUNGER PEERS

WORKING DRAFT OF UNIT ON RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN OLDER AND YOUNGER PEERS

A Resource Unit for the Teaching of Social Science in the Elementary School

by

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Social Science Education Project
Research Development Activity Project E-011
Cooperative Research Program
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January, 1964
Inter-Center Program of Research on
Children, Youth, and Family Life
Institute for Social Research
The University of Michigan

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PREFACE

The Social Science Education Project has been in operation since 1962. For a year (1962-63) the project team was engaged in a pilot project in two elementary schools attempting to clarify and evaluate curriculum plans, teaching procedures and classroom tools. During the summer of 1963 two teachers further used and developed classroom materials. During the 1963-64 year units have been prepared and distributed to teachers in the public schools for additional field testing.

The impetus for such a project was the ever-increasing concern of educators, social scientists and curriculum specialists for revision and improvement in the social studies curriculum. Knowledge in the social sciences has increased extensively in the past quarter century, as has knowledge in the physical sciences. While the teaching of physical sciences has gained prominence in the elementary program there has been only superficial concern with the broad range of the social sciences. It seems particularly important that science education about human behavior should begin early in life. A young child is immersed in a complex social culture; he is constantly required to interact wisely with his classmates, siblings, parents, peers, teachers and other adults. He has a pressing need to develop an understanding of social process and to perfect appropriate interpersonal skills. Teachers have usually been interested in helping children solve interpersonal problems, but the dynamics of human behavior have not been systematically included as curriculum content.

The contents of this unit are concerned with the disciplines of psychology, sociology and social psychology. It is not a replacement for the existing social studies programs dealing primarily with the disciplines of geography and history. The general goals for the teaching of a social science unit are:

1. Content of units to be derived from areas well-studied by social scientists that at the same time have relevance to the experiences of the grade level for which they are designed.

2. The recognition of multiple causes of human behavior rather than any one specific cause.

3. Discovering alternative consequences that may occur in any particular situation.

4. Utilizing concepts as tools for organizing one's observations and for interpreting the phenomena of human interaction in one's life experiences.

5. Clarifying value criteria--articulating reasons for value judgements.

6. Opportunity to explore behavior alternatives which link up with values and to test the reality of these linkages in different settings.

7. An understanding of others' psychological processes (feelings, perceptions, opinions, etc.) as well as understanding one's own psychological processes.

The format for all units is basically similar; the eleven phases of each unit represent the methodology which is essential for the scientific process of investigating human behavior. While the broad steps, or phases, are necessary for each teacher to follow systematically, they are only guidelines. Within each phase the teacher is not restricted or limited in making adaptations for her specific classroom needs. The timing of the units and the placement into the already existing curriculum is also up to the teacher. It is possible to present a unit solely on the basis of interest and needs of the children. A phase of the unit can be pursued each day until the completion of the unit, or a phase can be presented once a week. Teachers must always be free to make adaptations suitable for their own classroom needs. The teaching of these units could occur in many ways while the basic formula of systematic inquiry remains constant.

FORMULA FOR SOCIAL SCIENCE UNIT IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

PHASE A RESOURCE MATERIAL--substantive conceptual reading material for the teacher on unit topic.

PHASE 1 PREPARATION OF UNIT--examining and revising proposed goals for the unit, preparing tools for diagnosis of classroom in relation to unit topic.

PHASE 2 INTRODUCTION OF UNIT--deciding on method of presentation of the unit and presenting unit to the class.

PHASE 3 PRESENTATION AND OBSERVATION OF SPECIMEN OF BEHAVIOR--developing observation teams and observation tools, rehearsing behavior specimen and presenting behavior specimen.

PHASE 4 DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS--compiling and organizing observation team reports, analysing data facing issues of reliability and validity.

PHASE 5 INTERPRETATION OF CAUSE AND EFFECT RELATIONSHIPS--teacher helping to identify and interpret cause and effect relationships in behavior specimen.

PHASE 6 PLACING VALUE ON CONSEQUENCES--identifying and sharing value criteria.

PHASE 7 EXPLORATION OF ALTERNATIVE CAUSAL SEQUENCE--children make hypotheses about alternative courses of action and test their hypotheses by role playing.

PHASE 8 SUMMARY OF UNIT--children summarize learnings and discoveries.

PHASE 9 UTILIZING SOCIAL SCIENCE RESOURCES--teacher presents conceptual models to children and children read about social science experiments in relation to the topic being studied.

PHASE 10 EXPLORATION OF RELEVANCE TO OTHER SITUATIONS--children apply their learnings to situations in their own lives and plan to activate their learnings.

PHASE 11 EVALUATION OF UNIT--administration of post unit tool, evaluation of the unit per se and measurement of content learned by the children.

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PHASE A: RESOURCE MATERIAL ON RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN OLDER AND YOUNGER PEERS

This unit introduces a laboratory learning unit on the interactions between older and younger children. The phenomenon of relationships between children of different ages has a significant influence on the growing-up process and is one of the major interpersonal contexts in which the child develops. Opportunities for this interaction, which include the processes of modeling, imitation, rebellion, and the like, occur in such contexts as the family with its different age siblings, the school with its different grade levels, and the neighborhood with its cross-age composition. The interaction itself may take such forms as: playing together, helping, learning, fighting, teasing and so forth.

Two frameworks for analysis, the force field and the circular process, help organize our thinking about personal interactions and provide a way of looking at the dynamics of these phenomena. These "little theories" have been adapted for social research reports. They are presented here as tools the teacher should find useful in helping her think about the phenomena of this unit.

The Force Field:

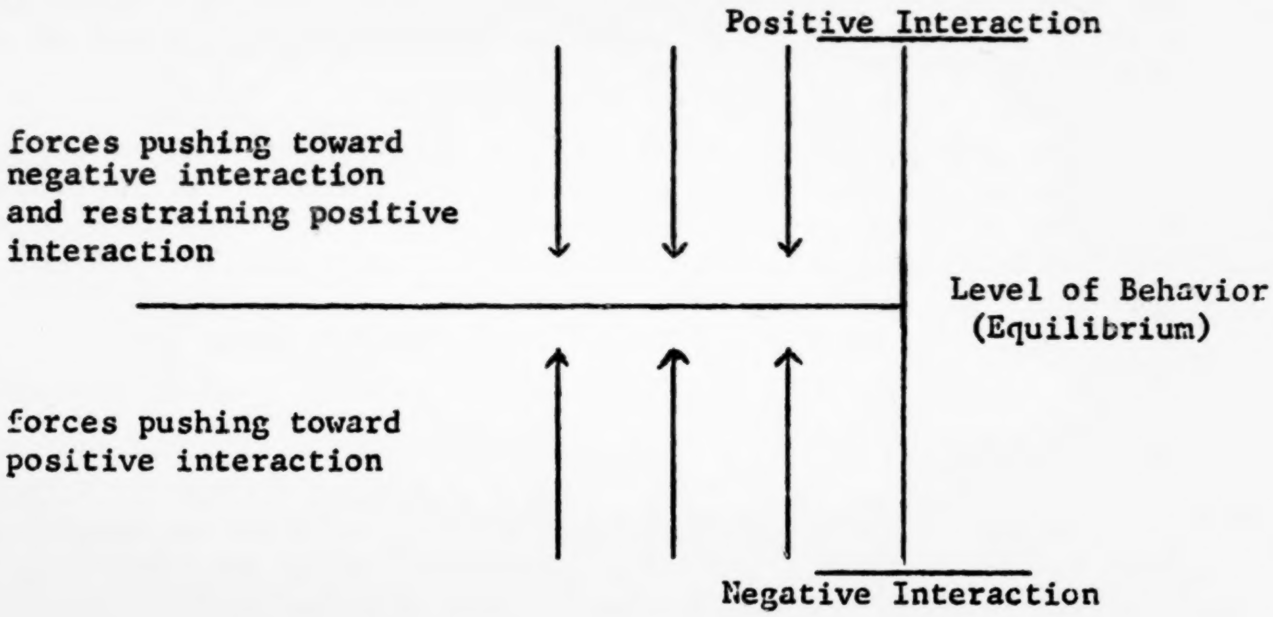
We often tend to think of our present behavior as resulting from custom or habit. At first glance, we might say that present conditions exist because no one is able to make them any different. But instead of viewing an episode of behavior as a result of "inertia" or force of habit, one may view it as an interplay of forces that exist in the present and act in maintaining the particular level of behavioral interaction.

If one is interested in the level of interaction between olders and youngers, one might identify "friendship between them" as a force which tends to bring olders and youngers toward a positive relationship. A force which tends toward negative relationwhip would be "distrust between them." The present level of behavior (as opposed to some other level) may be seen to occur at the point where the sum of the strengths of all forces pushing in one direction is equal to the sum of the strengths of all the forces pushing in the opposite direction.

Kurt Lewin, one of the pioneers in the field of social psychology, is responsible for this way of thinking about human behavior. Because the strength of these forces may not always be constant over time, but may fluctuate, and, because new forces may come into existence or old forces may cease to exist or change direction, the level of behavior is not viewed as stationary or fixed; but rather it is viewed as an equilibrium process. A habit, then, may over time show some mild fluctations, but because the strength of neither set of opposing forces has been appreciably modified, there is no significant change in the equilibrium and the level of behavior tends to stay at its original point.

We can visualize this quasi-stationary equilibrium in the following manner:

FIGURE 1


Positive Interaction
forces pushing toward negative interaction and restraining positive interaction
Level of Behavior (Equilibrium)
forces pushing toward positive interaction
Negative Interaction

For an illustration of this model let us attempt to identify some of the forces which move olders and youngers toward positive interaction and those which move them toward negative interaction.

The lists presented below are not intended to be a complete analysis of any particular situation; rather the intention is to give some flavor for how the model can be used. The teacher will probably think of other forces specific to her school or neighborhood.

A. Some Forces Pushing Olders Toward Positive Interaction with Youngers

1. Desire for appreciation
2. Desire for friends
3. Desire to help
4. Desire to nurture
5. Compatibility with youngers because of own level of maturity
6. Respect for youngers

B. Some Forces Pushing Youngers Toward Positive Interaction with Olders

1. Desire to be appreciated
2. Desire for friends
3. Desire for help
4. Desire to learn
5. Desire to be regarded as big
6. Trust in olders

C. Some Forces Pushing Olders Toward Negative Interaction with Youngers:

1. Youngers are seen as inferior
2. There's no status in "helping"
3. It is considered "sissy" to be with youngers
4. Low value is placed on friendly relations
5. Youngers are not trained to appreciate and reward olders
6. Need to tease in order to feel "big" or "important."

D. Some Forces Pushing Youngers Toward Negative Interaction with Olders:

1. Dislike for being manipulated, dominated, misunderstood
2. Youngers are the objects of aggressive acts by olders
3. Olders do not take youngers seriously
4. Youngers have feelings of inferiority
5. Youngers have negative feelings toward olders

The actual level or amount of positive interaction between olders and youngers would occur at the point where the strength of the forces driving toward greater positive interaction are balanced by the strength of the forces driving toward negative interaction.

To have the level of interaction change between olders and youngers there would first have to be an inequality in the sum of the strengths of the opposing forces as they presently exist. This inequality unfreezes the present level of behavior and moves it to a new level at which the sum of the strengths of the forces driving toward positive interaction and the forces driving toward negative interaction are again equal.

Since the force field provides a way of identifying the causes of behavior, it should prove useful to the teacher in interpreting the diagnostic data she will be collecting from her class. Such data may be used to construct a force field analysis of the present level of interaction between olders and youngers in her classroom, or the school.

The Circular Process

"Do unto others as you would have them do unto you."

"One good turn deserves another."

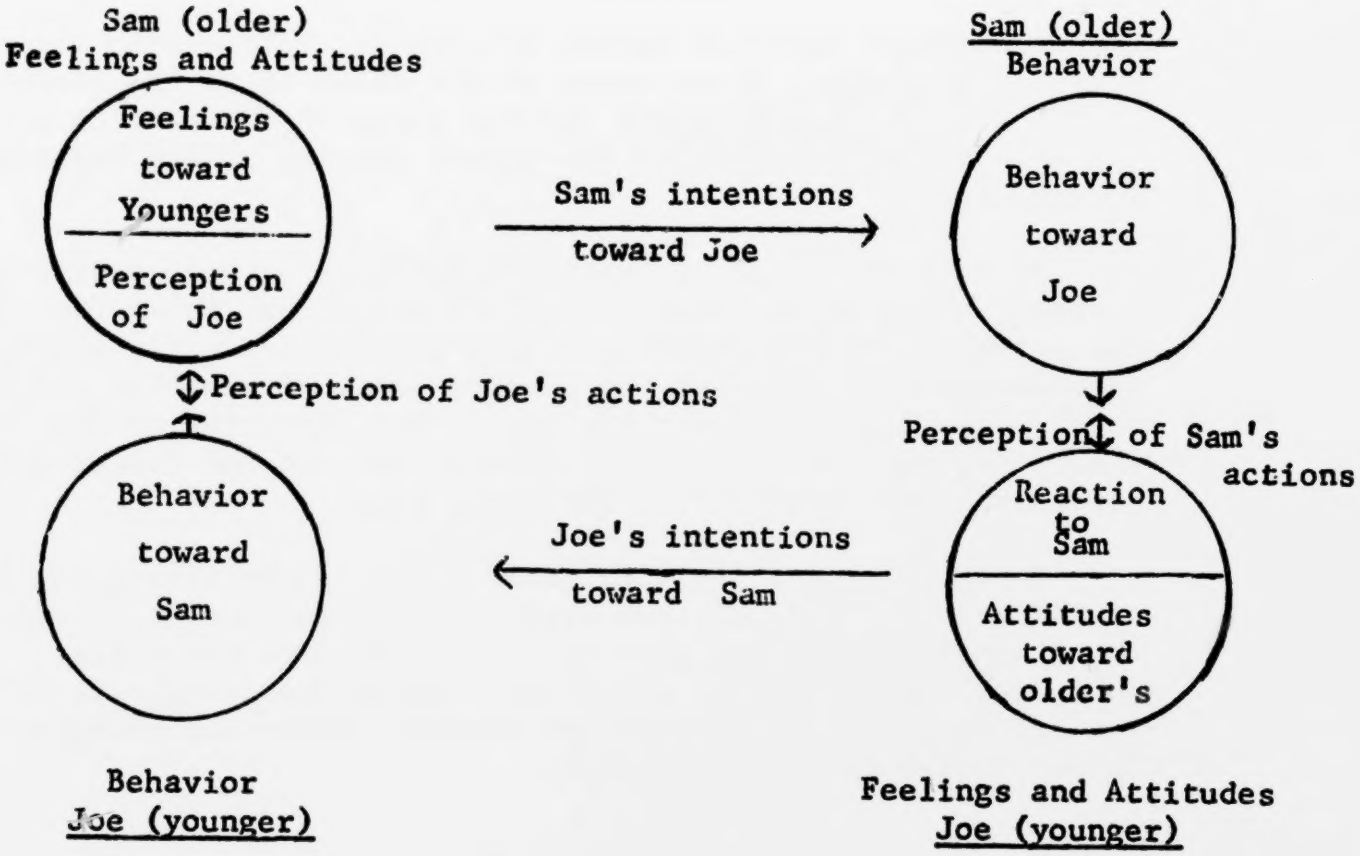
"Two wrongs don't make a right."

Each of these everyday-expressions involves implicitly a common sense notion about human behavior that social scientists have been studying, and have termed a circular interpersonal process. Stated more explicitly, this notion suggests that in any ongoing interaction between two or more persons the pattern of behavior that emerges is the consequence of a circular process, whereby the attitudes, expectations and behaviors of the first person are affected by and affect the attitudes, expectations and behaviors of the other(s).

Two of the propositions stated above suggest that how we behave toward others will have some consequence for how others will behave toward us. The third proposition recognizes that the circular process may not always lead to desirable outcomes from the viewpoint of the participants.

A diagram (Figure 2) may help to make clearer what is involved in the circular process. Because we are concerned with the relations between olders and youngers in this unit, we shall consider the circular process in this context.

FIGURE 2
The Circular Process



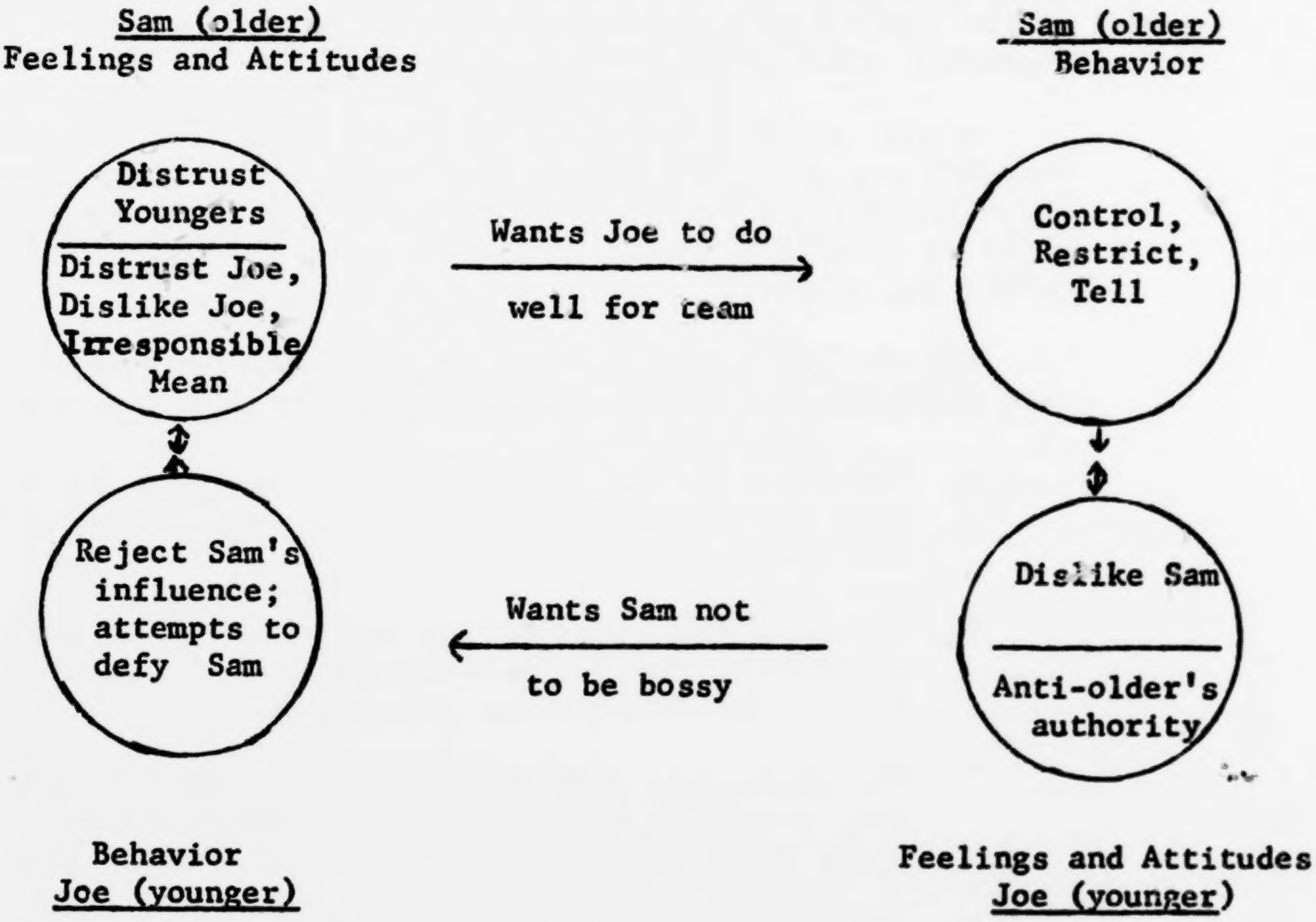
Sam (older)
Feelings and Attitudes
Feelings toward Youngers
Perception of Joe
Sam's intentions toward Joe
Sam (older)
Behavior
Behavior toward Joe
Perception of Joe's actions
Perception of Sam's actions
Behavior toward Sam
Joe's intentions toward Sam
Reaction to Sam
Attitudes toward older's
Behavior
Joe (younger)
Feelings and Attitudes
Joe (younger)

According to this picture of the process, the feelings and attitudes of the older child affect both his intended behavior toward the younger child, and his expectation and perception of the younger child's behavior towards him. The way the younger child sees the older child's actual behavior is evaluated by the younger child; and, combined with his other attitudes, affects the younger child's attitudes and intended behavior toward the older. The behavior initiated by the younger and subsequently perceived by the older thus produces feedback, which further influences the older child's attitudes toward the younger child.

Let us turn to a more specific example in order to make clear how the circular process tends to maintain itself. We shall consider, first, a typical pattern tending to maintain conflict between an older and a younger child. (See Figure 3).

FIGURE 3

A Distrustful-Negative Cycle


Sam (older)
Feelings and Attitudes
Sam (older)
Behavior
Distrust Youngers
Distrust Joe,
Dislike Joe,
Irresponsible
Mean
Wants Joe to do
well for team
Control,
Restrict,
Tell
Reject Sam's influence; attempts to defy Sam
Wants Sam not
to be bossy
Dislike Sam
Anti-older's authority
Behavior
Joe (younger)
Feelings and Attitudes
Joe (younger)

Sam, an older boy, dislikes and distrusts younger children; perhaps he has a younger brother who breaks his toys and does other things for reasons which Sam does not understand. Joe, who is a few years younger and who dislikes "bossy" older children, is on Sam's baseball team. Sam, captain of the team, wants very much for the team to do well; and, when Joe is at bat, Sam shouts orders an directions to him. Joe perceives this behavior as "bossing." As Sam shouts louder, Joe develops a dislike for Sam; and decides that he won't pay any attention to what Sam is shouting. He deliberately swings at a high pitch and strikes out. Sam shouts furiously at Joe because he has struck out. Although Joe deliberately struck out to get even with Sam for his "bossing", Sam perceives the situation differently--that little kids cannot be trusted or counted on to do well. Sam intended to be helpful and encouraging for the sake of the team, but his initial attitudes (distrust of younger children) and actual behavior (shouting of orders) served to reinforce Joe's attitude (that big kids are often bossy), and thus provoked Joe into behavior (striking out) that reinforced Sam's original attitude (that little kids can't be trusted.) The attitudes and behaviors of both boys, therefore, contributed to the continuation of the conflict cycle--even though the situation is not necessarily desirable to either party.

A more positive pattern that might occur between olders and youngers may be termed a trustful-positive cycle (see Figure 4). The attitudes and behaviors of both the older and the younger child in this case result in a continuing process of mutual growth and support.

The circular process leads us to consider several factors when thinking about the relations between olders and youngers.

A. Over time in any relationship between two individuals, each party builds up expectations and attitudes about the other.

B. The attitudes, perceptions and behaviors of both parties contribute toward the maintenance of the pattern of interaction once it has been established.

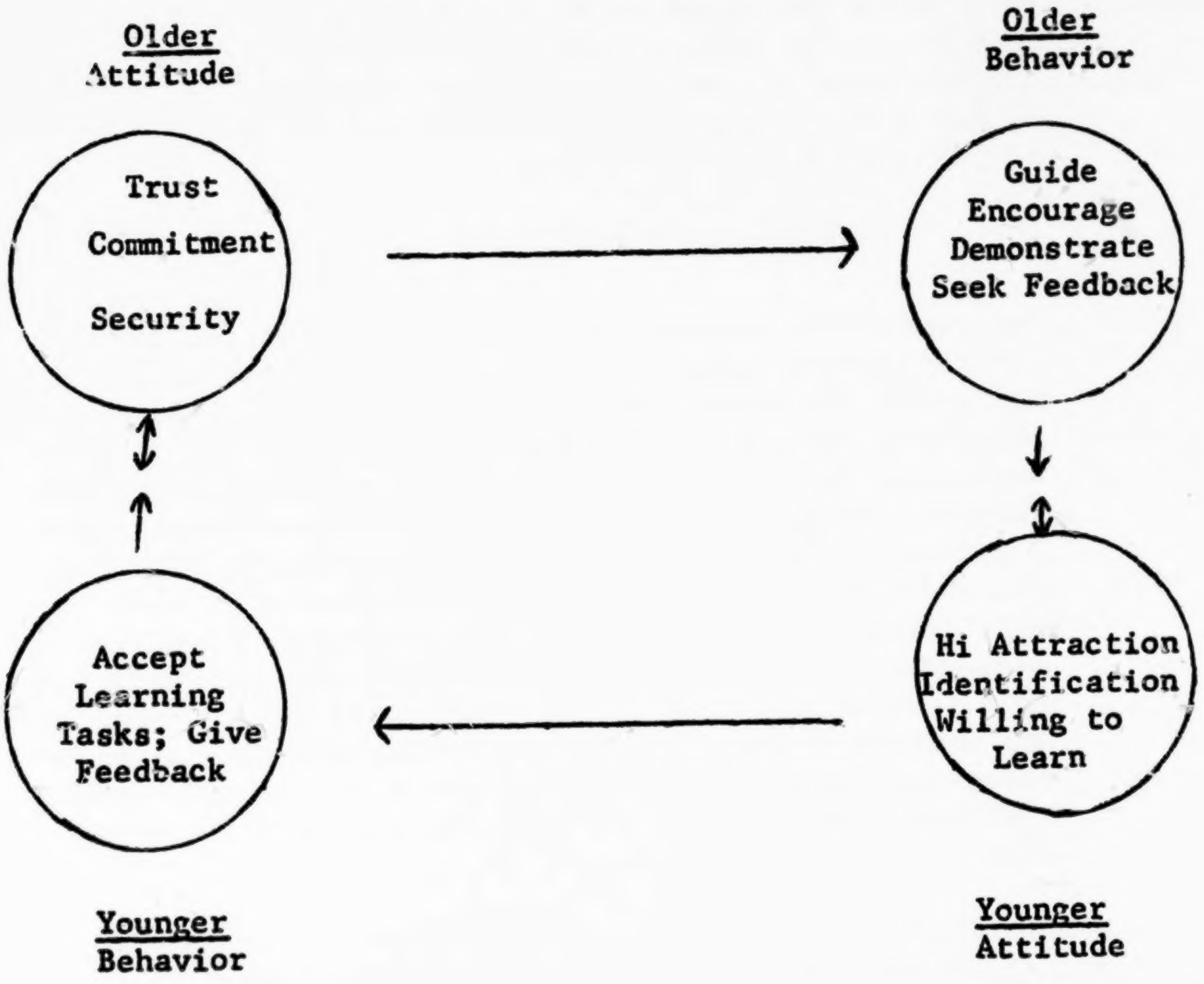
C. Our intentions (the linkage between our attitudes and our behaviors) may not always be communicated successfully to or perceived accurately by someone olse.

D. The accuracy of this communication may be due both to the manner in which we behave and the attitudes and expectation of the person who receives the communication.

E. For these reasons, it is often difficult for either party to change such patterns once they have become established.

FIGURE 4

A Trustful-Positive Cycle


Older
Attitude
Trust
Commitment
Security
Older
Behavior
Guide
Encourage
Demonstrate
Seek Feedback
Hi Attraction
Identification
Willing to
Learn
Younger
Attitude
Accept
Learning
Tasks; Give
Feedback
Younger
Behavior

PHASE I PREPARATION

Teacher Pre-Planning

A. Identify goals. **The following is a list of general goals related to the study of relations between Olders and Youngers.** The teacher may wish to include others and/or exclude some of those listed here depending on the needs of her class. The goals selected should be relevant for a specific group of children.

Values as Objectives

One particular concern of social scientists is the recognition of values. It is the job of the social science units and the classroom teacher to assist children in recognizing and developing their own values. It is also important for the children to understand how something becomes valued; they should clarify their criteria for judgement. The job of the teacher is not to tell the children what is right or wrong about certain kinds of behavior but rather to allow the children to make value decisions for themselves within the context of this unit. To assume that we, as teachers and social scientists, are without values is erroneous. It is good for us to recognize our own value concerns. Some possible values that you, the teacher, or that the children may identify are:

1. Older children in many situations may be seen by younger children as models of attitudes and behavior. Older children have a responsibility for playing this role in order to help youngers grow up.

2. Older children may be seen as a resource to younger children for helping them learn to grow up. Youngers may be seen by olders as opportunities for providing significant service.

3. Olders have more understanding than do youngers of the motives of adults and the ways of relating to them--and at the same time they may often have more understanding of the feelings and motives of younger children than do adults. Thus, they can serve as two-way interpreters, helping youngers to understand adults and visa versa.

4. Similarity in age is not the only or always the most important criteria for determining one's associations.

Cognitive Learnings as Objectives

1. There are forces which bring olders and youngers together or keep them apart.

2. Recognizing forces which bring olders and youngers into relationships that are mutually supporting and satisfying or mutually non-supporting and non-satisfying.

3. When problems in the relationship between olders and youngers arise, the attitudes and behaviors of both parties usually contribute to the difficulties.

4. Once attitudes and expectations about each other become established, there are forces which tend to maintain those attitudes and expectations and which tend to make it difficult to institute change, even though the outcome of such relationships may be disliked by both parties.

5. The concepts of "older" and "younger". Understanding that we are both older than some people and younger than others and that there may be similarities in the attitudes people have and the ways they behave toward people older (or younger) irregardless of their actual age.

6. The concept of "bigness". Being "big" and getting "bigger" (or being "little") has different meanings for different children.

Skills to be Learned as Objectives

1. Ability to articulate criteria for evaluating relationships between olders and youngers.

2. Ability to choose how to behave with children that are older or younger.

B. Utilizing goals in planning the teaching sequence.

   1. Once the teacher has established goals for the unit, she may find it helpful to use the following chart as a means of planning for the accomplishment of each objective.

   2. The third column, Generalizations From Class, will be completed with the children at the end of Phase VIII. It is a check for the teacher to determine if the

original goals have been learned by the students. However, at this point in the pre-planning process it may be useful for the teacher to speculate regarding the kinds of generalizations that may develop.

Relationship Between Goals and Learnings about Youngers and Olders

Goals	Lessons Taught In	Generalizations from Class in Phase VIII
1. Olders may be seen as a resource to youngers.	Phase 6	Olders know how to do more things.
2. The concept of "big" has different meanings for different children.	Phase 5, 7, 8	Helping others makes you feel important.

C. Planning for diagnosis

1. In order to do the most effective job of teaching, it is important that teachers have a clear understanding of their classroom. Diagnostic instruments are a method of assessing what the children already know and what they need to learn. Different assessment tools are appropriate for different purposes. To assess liking patterns in the classroom a teacher would use a sociometric instrument; to assess academic abilities she may use a standardized achievement test. The diagnostic tool presented in this unit is aimed at getting an accurate picture of the children's attitudes and perceptions about the relationships between olders and youngers; their awareness of alternative ways of relating to older and younger children; and the expectations they have about how they and other children their own age would behave in problematic situations with olders and youngers.

2. On the following two pages is presented the tool which is proposed for getting diagnostic information:

Name____________________

Date____________________

Diagnostic and Evaluation Instrument

THE PLAYGROUND

A. Some 3rd graders and some 1st graders are on the school playground during lunch period one day. One of the 3rd graders is being teased by some 1st graders. What are some things that the 3rd graders could do about it? (Put down as many things as you can think of.)

Do not write in this space

	T_1	T_2
	n ☐	n ☐
	a b c d e	a b c d e
If you were in this 3rd grader's place, what would you do?	s ☐	s ☐
Why would you do that?	a b c	a b c
What do you think most 3rd graders would do?	o ☐	o ☐
Why would they do this?	a b c	a b c

Name____________________

Date____________________

Diagnostic and Evaluation Instrument

THE BALL GAME

B. Some 3rd graders are outside playing ball. A couple of 5th graders come along and join the game. One of the 5th graders starts to "take over" the game. He tells the 3rd graders when they should be up, how to bat, who's going to pitch next, and things like that. What are some things that the 3rd graders could do about this? (Put down as many things as you can think of.)

Do not write in this space

	T_1	T_2
	n ☐	n ☐
If you were one of these 3rd graders, what would you do?	☐ a ☐ b ☐ c ☐ d ☐ e	☐ a ☐ b ☐ c ☐ d ☐ e
	s ☐	s ☐
Why would you do that?	☐ a ☐ b ☐ c	☐ a ☐ b ☐ c
What do you think most 3rd graders would do in this case?	o ☐	o ☐
Why would they do this?	☐ a ☐ b ☐ c	☐ a ☐ b ☐ c

3. Categories for assessing children's present level of thinking about olders and youngers.

One might read through the entire response to each situation noting the dominant mode of interaction each child suggests (e.g., problem-solving, aggressive, avoidance, appeal to adult authority, etc.) if this can be determined.

A set of categories into which you might code the action responses for The Playground are the following:

a. Appeal to adult authority (I'd go tell the teacher).
b. Aggressive or hostile responses (hit them, beat them up).
c. Avoidance or ignoral (play elsewhere, go away, pay no attention).
d. Friendly responses (act friendly toward them, smile, talk to them).
e. Verbal attempts to control (Tell them to stop, explain to them how they should behave).

A set of categories which you might use to code explanations for behavior in The Playground incident are the following:

a. Teasing is seen as aggressive.
b. Teasing is seen as bothersome or demanding attention.
c. Teasing is seen as something youngers just naturally do.
d. Awareness that younger is teasing because of some "need" or desire (i.e., he wants us to play with him, he wants to be included, etc.)

A set of categories into which you might code the action responses for The Ball Game incident are the following:

a. Appeal to adult authority.
b. Aggressive or hostile responses.
c. Avoidance or ignoring situation.
d. Verbal attempts to control (Ask them to cooperate, explain we were here first, ask or tell them to play fair.)
e. Verbal attempts to restrict (Ask them to leave, tell them to play elsewhere).

Categories for explanation of behavior in The Ball Game incident.

a. Explain by repeating situation (Because they took over the game).
b. Controlling by outside source (Tell teacher to make them stop).
c. Controlling by power (Hit them to make them stop).
d. Fear of reprisal (So I wouldn't get into trouble).
e. Using legitimate power (Talk to them so we could both get what we want).

The teacher may want to add additional categories relevant to the types of responses given by her students. Those mentioned above are only a few alternatives.

4. Scoring Directions.

You will note that on the diagnostic instrument there appear boxes after each question. These boxes are to aid in scoring the instruments. Use only the boxes under T_1 (first administration) for diagnosing the level of the class. T_2 will be used to assess the change after the unit has been taught. You will note that on a following page we have scored a sample instrument for you.

THE PLAYGROUND

1. In the first box with a little n, place the total number of alternative behaviors to the situation that the child mentions. Include responses from the last two questions if they differ from the alternatives given to the first question. Do not code a similar response twice.

2. In the next series of five boxes labled a,b,c,d,e, (letters stand for the categories suggested above (see page 13) or those the teacher has devised). Code all the action responses given by a student by placing an X through those boxes whose letters correspond to categories into which his responses fit. (For example, if the child responded with "Tell the teacher," the response would fit into (a)--Appeal to Adult Authority and an X would be place in the box with an (a) in it.)

3. In the next box with a little s, code the action response to what the child would do if he were in this person's place by placing the letter of the category into which the response fits in that box.

Note: If more than one response is given to this question or the next question, code the most important response if you can ascertain this, otherwise code the first response mentioned.

4. In the next row of four boxes code the reason why the action response is given. Again the little letters in the box correspond to the categories suggested (see page 13) for coding the explanation for behavior. An X should be placed in the appropriate box as in step 2 above.

5. In the next box with a little o, code the action response to what the child thinks most students his age will do using the same procedure suggested in step 3.

6. In the last row of four boxes code the explanation for the behavior using the same procedure as suggested in step 4.

Follow the same procedure for The Ball Game.

(Sample Analysis)

Name Sally

Date 5-20-64

Diagnostic and Evaluation Instrument

THE BALL GAME

B. Some 3rd graders are outside playing ball. A couple of 5th graders come along and join the game. One of the 5th graders starts to "take over" the game. He tells the 3rd graders when they should be up, how to bat, who's going to pitch next, and things like that. What are some things that the 3rd graders could do about this? (Put down as many things as you can think of.)

Take the bat and ball and play somewhere else.

Tell the teacher.

If you were one of these 3rd graders, what would you do?

Tell the teacher and she will make them stop.

Why would you do that?

Because they were taking the game over.

What do you think most 3rd graders would do in this case?

Take their things and leave.

Why would they do this?

The fifth grade was bossing them around.

Do not write in this space

T_1	T_2
n 2	n
x b x d e	a b c d e
S a	S
x b c	a b c
o C	o
x b c	a b c

D. Evaluating Change

1. The instrument presented in this phase may also be used at the termination of the unit to get a post-unit picture of the level of the children's understanding about relations between olders and youngers and may serve to evaluate any change.

2. Scoring Directions in using diagnostic instrument as an evaluation tool.

   a. Go through the evaluative instrument, coding it in the same manner as you did the first time it was administered. Space has been provided to code both administrations on one sheet. Use the column headed T2 for the second coding.

   b. Listed here are some of the dimensions along which change might be expected to occur. The teacher may think of others.

      (1) Children should be able to give more alternatives to the problem solving situation on the second administration.

      (2) Response to what other classmates would do if they were in the situation should agree more fully with what other children actually say they will do (reduction of collective ignorance) Teacher may go through child's response to the question, "If you were....what would you do?", for the Baseball and Playground stories. Tally the number of responses for categories a, b, c, d, or e.

      (3) The specific mode of coping with problem solving situations may change from impulsive reaction toward more rational cognitive problem solving.

   c. To assess change, a comparison may be drawn between pre- and post-unit administrations on the dimensions mentioned above.

Working with Children:

A. Adminstration of instrument.

1. The teacher should make the following points clear to the children:

- a. This is not a test to be graded. There are no right or wrong answers. Write what you think.
- b. This is to help the teacher to plan a unit on relations between Olders and Youngers so that it will be more interesting to the class.
- c. Answers will be treated in confidence. They will not be available to parents or to other children.
- d. Don't worry about spelling a word, just do the best you can.

2. Teacher read the story out loud while the children read it silently.
3. Children write answers to questions. The following is a list of possible arrangements for children to answer the questions. (The manner will be determined primarily by abilities of class.)
    - a. Teccher read all questions aloud first and have children answer each question on their own.
    - b. Teacher read each question aloud and children answer before going on to next question.
    - c. Teacher may break class up into groups (such as reading groups) and administer the test.
    - d. Children work in pairs to help each other.
    - e. Older children may sit as interviewers for younger children and record responses.
4. Collect, score and file for comparison at the end of the unit.

PHASE II INTRODUCTION OF UNIT

Teacher Pre-Planning:

A. Lay plans to introduce the class to the idea of playing role of social scientists looking at how older and younger children get along.

B. Think up examples to tell in story form of ways that younger and older children typically relate to each other. (Be careful as you think of examples you don't label them with a "value". For example, don't say, some big boys tease, which isn't very nice." But just recount what actually happens--they help, tease, ignore, boss or whatever does occur, without at this time labeling this behavior as good or bad.

Working with Children

A. The following is one suggestion for introducing children to the study of how olders and youngers relate to each other.

The teacher might begin by making some reference to social scientists who study how individual persons behave or how groups of people behave toward each other: Suppose as social scientists we take a look at older children and younger children and how they get along with each other.

Have any of you seen something like this happen on the playground?

1. Two older children taking a younger child's cap and tossing it back and forth, keeping it away from him?

2. A bigger child helping a younger with homework?

3. A big boy tying a little boy's shoe?

4. A big boy or girl being very bossy with a little one. (She could go into a little detail about how this is done.)

5. Relate any instance the class has experienced or had a chance to observe which had to do with relationships of youngers and olders, such as; "Do you remember when Bill's little brother followed him to school and how all of you bigger children were so gentle with him and how Bill got excused to take him back home?

B. The teacher might then have the class break up in buzz groups of 3 or 4 to talk about and share examples of relationships between youngers and olders. They might choose a reporter from each group to report back to the rest of the class. The teacher might instead ask each group for an example they had shared with each other. (An advantage in having the children in buzz groups might be to find out if they could begin to work in groups and share ideas as a build up to working in observation groups later.) As they reported back, the teacher could get feedback as to whether this relationship between youngers and olders was something the children found relevant to their lives. If buzz groups are not appropriate, the teacher might discuss with the class the different examples of how older children and younger children behave toward each other.

C. The teacher may ask the children why this question of how olders and youngers behave toward each other is interesting to investigate "Why is it something that is important for us to know more about?"

D. How are we going to find out more about it? If a man from Mars came down and asked, "On the planet Earth how do older children behave toward younger children?" We could tell him all the things that we have just been sharing with each other. But suppose he asked "When are big children teasey? When are they helpful? Do the same ones who help also tease? What makes them act differently at different times? Are they more apt to help children who are much, much younger or just a little younger? How do little children feel about big children?"

How could we get the answers for him?

One way we're going to be discovering some answers is by producing specimens of behavior to look at. Just the way a geologist studies stones by looking at them, and astronomers study the stars by looking at them, we will be social scientists looking at specimens of human behavior so we can see how older and younger children feel toward each other at certain times and what they do about their feelings.

We will be drawing conclusions about what is likely to happen if people behave in a certain way. We will be experimenting to see if we are right about the conclusions. We will be experimenting to see what might happen if the same people act in another sort of way.

How to Get Feedback from Children:

A. In order to insure clarification and the personal relevance of the unit the teacher may do one of the following suggestions.

1. Keep track of examples of relations between younger and older children. Write down all kinds of interaction that is observed. At the end of a specific time period, five days for instance, the kinds of relationships could be categorized, (teasing, helping, hurting, playing, etc.) to see which kind of relationship is seen most often, which next often and so on.

2. Interview children with older and/or younger brothers and/or sisters to find out how the children feel about their siblings. Keep a record of the kinds of things that are liked and disliked about younger and older siblings.

PHASE III PRESENTATION AND OBSERVATION OF SPECIMEN OF BEHAVIOR

Teacher Pre-Planning:

A. Recruit and brief players for specimen of behavior to be observed. This should take 15 to 20 minutes. Specimen episode is as follows.

Suggested Behavioral Specimen for Observation in Unit on Younger-Older Relations

Characters--		
Characters--	Tom and Jim Older boys	Pete and Fred Younger boys

Scene: A street running past Pete's House.

Two 3rd graders (Pete and Fred) are sitting on the steps of Pete's house trying to mend a broken bat. Pete has gotten some tape from the kitchen drawer. They are not having any success and have made a mess out of the tape. It has been raining. The sun is out now, but there are puddles in the street. Two older boys (6th grade) Tom and Jim come up the street, hurrying to get to a vacant lot to play ball. They have a bat, ball and glove. They are talking about how glad they are it isn't raining and how little time they have left to play before dinner. Fred sees the bigger boys and says he's going to ask them to help fix the bat. Pete says they won't help smaller boys about their "baby bat" and what a mess they've made trying to fix it. The second older boy, Jim, wants to get to the ball field. He doesn't want to be bothered with little kids. Tom is enjoying teasing the younger ones. He takes the broken pieces of the bat over to show his older friend. The younger boys try to get it back. Pete steals around behind Tom and snatches the bat. Tom runs after him and Fred gets in front of Tom and stamps in a puddle, getting the big boy wet. Both smaller boys run into the house. Jim, the second biggest boy, urges Tom to come along and not bother with little kids. Tom yells toward the house where the younger boys are, "Just wait till I get you for this." He goes off up the street to play ball.

B. In briefing the characters some teachers might find it good to tell them the story in somewhat more detail, using dialogue, not for them to memorize, but for them to paraphrase, and to help them with getting ideas of their own as to what they might say. Dialogue which is told as part of the scene also legitimizes expression of aggression. Here is a suggested version of the specimen to tell as a story to the actors.

Suggested ways of Briefing Characters in The Specimen

Two younger children, Pete and Fred, are on the steps of one of their houses trying to fix a broken bat. It has been raining. The street still has puddles in it, but the sun is out now. Pete (whose house it is) has gotten some tape from the kitchen and they are trying to tape it together without much success. The tape gets twisted. They can't seem to hold the pieces together so they match right. When they do get the tape on it doesn't hold. They are talking.

Pete: Let's try it this way.

Fred: O.K., hold it steady and I'll put the tape around. (This doesn't work. They try several other ways.)

While they are trying different ways we see two older boys (Tom and Jim) down the street. They have a bat, a ball and a mit and are hurrying to the vacant lot up the street. As we listen in on their conversation they are saying that they are glad it stopped raining; now they can get in some batting practice before the rest of the team get there; that they don't have much time before the rest arrive; that there isn't much time to play--only an hour before dinner time.

As they come near the house of the smaller boy the boys fixing the bat see them.

Fred: Hey, here come some big kids. Let's ask them to help us. You know 'em, don't you?

Pete: Sure. He's Tom Evans. (Points to him). But they won't help.

Fred: I bet they would. Tom plays with my brother. I'm going to ask him.

Pete: It's no use asking big kids. They won't help.

Fred: We don't want to sit here all day trying to fix this. My brother could do it in a minute. I bet they can tape it so it will stay while we hold it. I'm going to ask them.

(He walks up to the big boys who are nearing the house)

Fred: Hi, Tom. Say, will you help us fix our bat. It's broken and we can't get it together right.

Tom (first older boy): What's the matter with you little shrimps? Can't you do anything?

(He walks over to where Pete is struggling with the tape)

Tom: You sure have made a mess out of that tape. Can't you even get a baby bat like that together? What a crummy bat, anyway.

Jim (Other older boy): Come on, Tom. We've got to go.

Tom: (Ignoring companion's suggestion) Say, shrimp, does your Dad know you took his insulation tape: You've wasted a whole roll. Gee, I never saw such a mess. Look at how they are trying to mend this bat, Jim. What a bunch of Birdbrains! What are you going to do with it when you get it fixed? It's so lousy anyway you can't play with it.

Pete: It is not lousy!

Jim: Come on, Tom. We won't have any time to practice.

Tom: (Picking up the bat pieces) Look at what they are trying to play ball with, Jim. What a bat!

Pete: Give 'em here.

Tom: Try to get 'em. (He holds them behind his back.)

Jim: Don't bother with these little kids. They aren't worth it.

Pete comes up in back of Tom--Fred comes up in front of him. Pete pulls pieces of the bat away and runs toward the house. Tom starts to run after him.

Jim: Don't mess off with these little kids, Tom. We've got to get over to practice.

Fred gets between Tom and Pete who is running with the pieces of the bat. As Tom comes near, Fred stamps in a puddle splashing Tom with water. He runs off toward the house.

Jim: Gosh, Tom, why do you bother with little kids. They're a waste of time. Come on.

Tom: (Angry at being splashed turns to go with his companion, but shouts at the house where the smaller boys have run into) "Just you wait. I'll get even with you for this! (He goes off up the street with Jim.)

Note: The sample episode has been presented using all boys. If the teacher wishes girls could also be given roles.

C. Separate briefing sheets for each character are sometimes helpful in giving the actors thoughts, feelings and motives of the people they are impersonating. Here is a type of individual briefing sheet which might be given to the actors in addition to the general briefing. If it is given it should be read over with each actor so he understands why he behaves the way he does in the specimen.

1st younger boy (or girl) - Pete

You are playing with your friend at your house. You took the tape from the kitchen drawer without asking because the family use it for fixing things and there weren't any grownups home to ask. You don't have any older brothers or sisters. You don't have much to do with the bigger boys or girls who live in your neighborhood. You haven't had any older kids who helped you do things.

2nd younger boy (or girl) - Fred

You are a friendly person. You are pretty good at solving problems. You think it is a good plan to ask for help when you can't do something for yourself. You have a big 6th grade brother whom you are on very good terms with. You feel friendly toward most bigger kids.

1st older boy (or girl) - Tom

You have a brother who teases you, so you take it out on smaller kids by teasing them. When you tease smaller children it makes you feel you are getting even for your brother teasing you. Also you admire your big brother and because he teases younger kids you think that part of being big is teasing smaller kids. It makes you feel big to make some other kid feel small.

2nd older boy (or girl) - Jim

You like to play baseball. You only have a little time left this afternoon to play. You aren't interested in younger children. You don't think they are worth paying attention to. You ignore them. It irritates you to have your friend waste so much time by getting involved with these younger children when you could be doing something like playing ball.

D. Have name tags for each actor to help observers keep them straight. Use names which do not belong to members of the class, to keep observations objective and unrelated to personalities of classmates.

E. It has been useful for some classes to tape record the specimen for reference later when analysing the data observed.

F. Prepare observation procedure.

The way that children are directed to look at a specimen of behavior is crucial to the scientific method of observation. This is a beginning part of the data collection process and is an important part of the scientific process of understanding human behavior. The teacher needs to take into account the level of skills of her students in order to decide the best way for observing the specimen. Generally, the recommended manner for observation is by small teams. Each team can be directed to look for specific aspects of the specimen and can share their individual observations with team members in order to verify their perceptions. There are a variety of ways that teams may be set up. All classes, however, do not have the skills necessary to work in small groups. Listed below are ways that classes may be helped to work in small groups and an alternative to the method of team observation.

1. Organizing Observation Teams: Generally 3 to 5 members make a good team. It is best to have at least one person in each team with skill enough to serve as a recorder.

    a. Teams may be arbitrarily chosen by the teacher, utilizing seating order or alphabetical listing.

    b. Teams may be arranged in accordance with sociometric patterns; combine high sociometric children with low sociometric; have low status children work with choice of work-mates; or have children work together who reciprocally like one another.

    c. Have children choose their own observation assignments; all children observing the same thing become a team.

2. Organization of observation for classes with children not having group work skills.

    a. Teacher choose and brief capable children to be discussion leaders and recorders for each observation group. The briefing will need to be done outside the class and should take about 20 minutes.

    b. Bring older children from another class into classroom to serve as observation group leaders and recorder. The teacher will need to give the older children some briefing for this job.

    c. The teacher may serve as the discussion leader; have the entire class work together as one observation team, sharing observations and recording them through general group discussion. Or have each group observe differently but answer questions about what they were to look for in a general group discussion.

3. Observation assignments.

   Note: These are specific aspects of the behavioral specimen that the teacher should keep in mind when organizing the observation groups.

   a. Specific aspects of the behavioral specimen:

      (1) Display behavior that can be looked at in terms of:

         each character - goals, perception of self and others in the situation, perception of "what happened," specific immediate consequences self.

         overall interaction - sequence of actions (either friendly or unfriendly).

      (2) Questions for observation groups should utilize the specific aspects of the specimen and provide meaningful information for Phase IV.

4. Collection and Analysis of Data.

   The following is a suggested format for this unit.

   a. One group observe Tom (first 6th grader or older boy) to determine the following things about him (ditto these questions for the teams).

      (1) What do you think he was trying to do when the episode started?

      (2) What did he really do?

      (3) What reactions did he get from the others?

      (4) How did he feel at the end?

   b. One group observe Jim (second 6th grader or older boy) to discover the same things about Jim.

   c. One group observe Pete (first younger boy) to discover the same things about Pete.

   d. One group observe Fred (second younger boy) to discover the same things about Fred.

   e. One group might keep a check sheet listing the number of friendly and unfriendly actions of each character.

Note: Each member of this team should record the actions of only one character. During the group discussion period, the team members should compile a final report. If possible two teams should be given this assignment in order to check the observations for validity.

The check sheet mightlook like this. Names of the characters are listed down the sheet at the left. Two columns, friendly and unfriendly, are to the right of them at the top. Under appropriate column mark a "Y" if the boy behaves in a friendly manner or an unfriendly way toward a younger. Mark an "O" when he behaves in a friendly or unfriendly way toward an older. (Please note that this is an objective notation. No value has been given to friendly or unfriendly actions. They are just noted as part of the data collected or the facts of the case.)

Example of Check Sheet for
Group Observation Job

	Friendly	Unfriendly
Tom	O, O, O	Y, Y, Y, Y, Y, O
Jim	O, O	O, Y, Y
Pete	Y, Y	O
Fred	Y, Y, O	O

Working with Children:

A. Prepare observation teams.

1. Motivate for watching--these are some suggestions that the teacher may wish to elaborate to motivate for careful watching.

    a. A detective looks for clues to solve a problem. We are going to look for clues in human behavior in order to better understand each other and ourselves.

    b. You know that if you were in a laboratory studying a stone some of you might measure it and weigh it;

some might mix it with chemicals to find what it's made of; some might break it in half to look at how it's put together. Each way of looking at it shows something different about the stone.

c. How many of you have been to a three ring circus? You know that you cannot watch all three rings at the same time. Watching people in this specimen is like that. We can't all see everything so we are going to divide into groups so that everything will be seen.

d. Often a magician will attract our attention to his right hand so that we will not see what his left hand is doing. That can also happen in the specimen. We must be careful to see everything that happens.

2. Arrange children in groups to observe.

3. Pass out ditto sheets and briefly go over questions (job assignments) that each team has to answer. This will also help direct their watching.

B. Present Specimen of Behavior.

1. Put names on actors.

2. Turn tape recorder on. (This is not necessary but can be helpful in re-creating the situation in case of disagreements.)

C. If individuals are filling out sheets, children record data after skit is finished, except for those recording friendly and unfriendly actions who must record what they see as they see it.

D. Recorders chosen for each group (by teacher or by group). Recorder will make the report for the observation team in Phase IV.

E. Observation teams discuss for 5 - 15 minutes. Each person should be allowed to express his/her opinions. Recorders write down either (1) all ideas of individuals or (2) consensus of opinion of the group. (See Phase III, Teacher Techniques, B, on page 30.)

F. If analysis of data (Phase IV) is not to be in same day as Data Presentation (Phase III) children may write observation team reports on large newsprint in front of the classroom and have them ready for Phase IV.

Problems and Teacher Technique Points in Presenting Observation of Specimen

A. Explain to the children the necessity of writing "key" words rather than involved and gramatically correct sentences. If they try to write everything in correct form it will take far too long for the completion of the questions and many children will become bored.

B. If the individuals have diverse views the recorder should probably present them all; if there are similar views they can be combined in one report.

PHASE IV DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS
(Recommended to be presented with Phase III)

Teacher Pre-Planning:

A. Prepare ideas for stimulating children to be motivated to listen to reports.

B. Decide on ways of reporting back to the whole class when groups have finished discussion. (see Working with Children, B)

Working with Children:

A. Motivation for listening carefully to reports from other teams. (teachers say to children)

1. Just as no two people see exactly the same things, no groups will see exactly the same thing. We will have to listen carefully to hear the different things that the groups hear. Try to detect the the differences in the reports.

2. We will also, of course, see many of the same things. Do not repeat what someone else has already said unless you have something to add to it.

B. Reporting: Methods of making the data available to the entire class will vary according to the attention span of the class, the format of the observation groups and the nature of the specimen. For this particular specimen it is recommended that this general plan be followed.

1. Have the questions arranged on the board before reporting begins according to this format:

	OLDERS		YOUNGERS	
	Tom	Jim	Pete	Fred
What did he want to do when the episode started?				
What did he actually do? (include the number of friendly and unfriendly actions.)				
What reactions did he get from others? (include number of friendly and unfriendly actions.)				
How does he feel in the end? (about what happened, towards the others, about himself)				

2. Instead of asking for a complete report from one group at a time, ask each question in turn, collecting all data for that question from all of the groups. Then ask the next question, having all groups contribute data, etc.

C. Teacher lead class in analysis:

Analysis: To analyze is to find significant relationships between two or more parts of the data. The analysis process will include the following:

1. Compile data observations: Bring together all the information that the children have gathered by having answers recorded in front of the room.

2. Check reliability of data observations: Compare what each team saw happening in the skit.

3. Check validity of team observations: Ask members of the class what the actors did or said, or replay the tape of the skit.

4. Check validity of actor's feelings by (1) interviewing actor or (2) by getting a concensus that the feelings of the actor are what the entire class saw.

5. Conceptual model could be presented to the class. (See Phase IX and Pre-Unit A).

Problems and Teacher Technique Points in Collecting and Analyzing Data:

A. Reporting must not be allowed to drag, be repetitious and boring. Therefore the teacher must motivate for careful listening and eliminate irrelevant or repetitious comments.

B. If a PMR (Post Meeting Reaction Sheet) is to be given to the children, the teacher should show: (1) she has received the information, (2) she feels it is important to make changes if necessary.

Feedback from Children:

A. In order to determine if observation grouping and reporting was effective, have children fill out PMR sheet which might include:

Questions answered by check on four-point scale

Four-Point Scale on Youngers and Olders

everytime	most of the time	not much of the time	never

1. In your observation team did everyone get a chance to say what he/she wanted to say?
2. Did you say the things you wanted to say?
3. Did you find the reports interesting?
4. Did all the important things get reported?

PHASE V INTERPRETATION OF CAUSE AND EFFECT RELATIONSHIPS

Teacher Pre-Planning:

A. The main focus of teaching this phase is to help children gain an understanding of "multiple causality", that is, what factors have operated to bring a situation about. It is suggested that children be given an introduction to cause and effect relationships before discussing the causal elements in the specimen.

Working With Children:

A. Introducing the concept of cause and effect.

1. Teacher may be writing something on the board: Arithmetic Probl. and then drop the chalk.

Teacher: What happened? (Response: You dropped the chalk.)

Teacher: Yes, the chalk fell to the floor. (She could then write on the board)

Cause ——————→ Effect
chalk fell

Teacher: What made the chalk fall?

Responses to this question will vary. They may include: you dropped it; something scared you and you dropped it; the chalk broke while you were writing; gravity made it fall; etc.

The teacher might then explain that scientists have found that gravity is the pull or the force that the earth has on things that makes them fall toward it. She could then hold a piece of chalk and say: The earth is still pulling on the chalk. Why doesn't it fall now? (Response: Because you are holding it.)

Teacher: Yes, I must let go of it before it will fall. What if there were no gravity? What would happen if I let go of it? (Response: It would stay in the same place.)

Teacher: So now we can see that there are two main things necessary before the chalk will fall. Gravity, or the pull of the earth on the chalk, and that I let it go. (The teacher should then write these on the board under Cause.) We call the chalk falling an Effect and we call the things that made it fall causes.

The teacher could then discuss other causal relationships such as a basketball bouncing, a deflated basketball not bouncing, etc.

2. In another preliminary session with the class the teacher may wish to explain that sometimes there is a *chain* of cause and effect relationships. She could refer back to the incident of the chalk falling and write on the board:

Cause	→	Effect
gravity I dropped it		chalk falls

She could then say: Scientists know that gravity is one of the causes that made the chalk fall. But scientists have also studied what causes gravity. They wanted to know what it is that makes the earth pull objects to it. One of the causes they give for this is the size of the earth. They have found that the larger an object is, the more it pulls on a smaller object. If the earth were larger, it would pull more; if it were smaller it would pull less. When we talk about what causes gravity, we are thinking of it as an *effect*.

The teacher could then write on the board, above her first diagram:

Cause	→	Effect
size of earth		gravity

Cause	→	Effect
gravity I dropped it		chalk falls

Teacher: We can see that the size of the earth is one of the things that causes gravity, and that gravity is one of the things that causes the chalk to fall. Let's look at the other cause of the chalk falling. Why did I drop it?

This question will provoke a variety of responses. The teacher may wish to take advantage of the resulting discussion to point out, or have the class realize, that she dropped the chalk in order to talk about cause and effect relationships.

3. Before examining the specimen in terms of cause and effect, the teacher should review this concept with her class. She might point out that there are certain

laws governing nature and objects in nature. One of these laws is the relationship between cause and effect. This law can also be applied to human behavior, i.e., if I do something, something will be the result.

B. Post and check the data from previous sessions (Phases 3 and 4). The class is now ready to restudy the specimen in terms of cause and effect relationships. The main concept in this study is that the way the specimen turned out didn't "just happen", but is the result of many causes.

C. Review the specimen in terms of "cause and effect chains". The following is a suggested method:

List actions in the specimen in the order in which they occurred under the right-hand column Behavior to be Explained. (This behavior is the result of what cause?) Fill in the left-hand column Causes in terms or feelings, motives or intentions derived from the data and from further class discussion after the right-hand column has been completed. The completed diagram on the blackboard should resemble the example below.

Example of completed diagram:

Causes (feelings, motives, intentions)	Behavior to be Explained (Result of what causes?)
wants to get the bat fixed trusts bigger kids thinks bigger kids can fix things	→ Fred asks for help
it makes Tom feel big to tease Tom doesn't think he can fix the bat and doesn't want to admit it Tom has an older brother who teases him so he thinks this is the way to act toward youngers	→ Tom teases and takes the bat
the youngers are mad at Tom they don't trust Tom they decide that he isn't going to help Pete wants the bat back	→ Pete snatches the bat back
Tom wants to "fight back" Tom isn't going to let them win Tom is mad	→ Tom chases Pete

Fred wants to protect Pete
Fred feels sorry for Pete → Fred splashes Tom
Fred wants to get even with Tom

Tom is mad for being splashed
Tom wants to get even → Tom shouts he'll get even

This diagram has helped the children list, from their data,

CAUSE → EFFECT
motives, intentions and feelings → the resultant behavior of the individual

which in turn causes (because of interpretation)

more feelings, motives, intentions → further action

D. Changes in this "chain reaction" can come from different interpretations or increased understanding. Example: Tom is picked on by his older brother. He is unsure of himself. He is trying to act big by teasing me because he doesn't feel big. Usually, when he teases me I feel angry. But now I can see that he is acting this way because he doesn't know any other way to feel big and because he is scared. So I don't feel as angry anymore.

or

I felt like hitting Tom because I was angry. But now I see that this will not bring about what I would like to have happen, so I will act differently to produce a different result.

E. The teacher should feel free to consider herself a source person for the class, offering her own comments and ideas along with pupils' contributions.

The teacher could also point out that evidence for some causes can be found directly from the episode. For instance, one might say that Fred has a helpful older brother because his dialogue indicates this. Other causes might derive from inferences or "hunches" about motivations. For instance, there is nothing in the skit dialogue that answers the question "Why does Tom tease the youngers?" Reasonable "hunches" might be: he has an older brother who teases him, so he thinks that's the way olders act toward youngers; he might think that he won't be able to fix the bat and he doesn't want to admit it; he's annoyed because he wants to do something else so he gets mad and teases them; etc.

Discussion about the validity of "hunches" could include: questioning the character about how he felt, asking the rest of the class for consensus, illustrating similar past experience where the particular "hunch" was known to be true.

PHASE VI PLACING VALUE ON CONSEQUENCES

Teacher Pre-Planning:

A. Before exploring alternatives, the class identifies some of the values of the characters in the behavioral specimen, and develops criteria for making their own value judgments. Before the class can go on to discuss and test ways in which the specimen could turn out differently, they should be aware of a basis for deciding what it is they want to change and why they think the change would be better than the original ending.

Working With Children:

A. Discuss some of the action in the specimen in terms of values. For example: Fred asked for help because he wanted to get the bat fixed. His value was getting the bat fixed. Tom teased the youngers because he wanted to feel big. His value was feeling big or important. Jim didn't let Tom really get into a fight. His value was saving time to play ball; or his value was that it's not good to fight, etc.

B. Ask the children to identify things they didn't like in the specimen and give reasons. For instance: they might say they didn't like Tom teasing because it made the youngers feel bad. The value would be not to hurt others' feelings. Or they might say they didn't like the teasing because it led to more teasing and fighting. The value would be that fighting is something to avoid. Or they might say they didn't like the teasing because they ended up disliking each other. The value would be that being friends is better than disliking each other. Etc.

C. Ask the children to identify what they liked in the specimen and give reasons. Repeat the above process of identifying the values behind the reasons.

D. Now ask children to tell what results they would rather see and tell why. In this way a criteria for deciding whether a result is better will be established by the class.

Some examples of changes suggested by the class might be:

Example: Results We Think Would Be Better

1. The older kids help the youngers and the bat gets fixed.

2. The older kids would explain that they didn't have time to fix the bat, but they would be friendly instead of teasing.

3. The younger kids would not start fighting to get even.

Some of the reasons for these suggestions might be:

Example: Criteria, or, Why We Think A Result Is Good Or Bad

1. When olders help youngers everyone feels good. Value: It's better to act so that others and ourselves feel good.

2. Teasing leads to more teasing and fighting. Value: It's better to avoid teasing or fighting.

3. When you're fighting it takes up time that you could be having fun. Value: We would rather spend time having fun than fighting.

E. These lists may be obtained through buzz groups of three or four children each, followed by class discussion to point out and compromise on differences of opinion. Or, if the class has not had much experience working in groups, the whole process may be completed through class discussion. In this case, however, the teacher should attempt to bring out differences of opinion among the members of the class. She should also consider herself a resource person and voice her own opinion, being careful to see that everyone in the class gets a chance to voice theirs'.

PHASE VII EXPLORATION OF ALTERNATIVE CAUSAL SEQUENCES

Teacher Pre-Planning:

Have avaliable the list of criteria from Phase VI.

Working with Children:

A. Review the list of "What results would be better."

B. Recall the reasons why these endings are believed to be better, referring to the list of criteria.

C. Select an alternative ending to try, sending the actors out of the room.

D. Explore ways of producing the desired ending with the class. For instance, if the ending to be tried is having the olders stop to help, the teacher should ask what will be necessary to have this happen. A possible suggestion might be that Tom feels like teasing, but remembers how he feels when his brother teases him.

E. After deciding what factors must be changed to bring about the desired ending, test them by briefing only the character whose actions the class suggests changing. Using the suggestion above, the teacher would brief Tom to stop and remember that he feels bad when his older brother teases. If he teases these little kids they'll also feel bad and probably won't like him. The other characters should not hear this briefing. It is also necessary to de-brief them, telling them to behave as they feel like behaving when reacting to Tom's different actions.

F. The episode is played out; class members are directed to look for answers to the following questions:

1. Did the older's behavior change as planned?
2. How is it different from the way he acted before?
3. What were the immediate results of the changed behavior?
4. Did this change lead to the ending we thought it would?

G. Test other alternatives in the same way.

PHASE VIII SUMMARY OF UNIT

Teacher Pre-Planning:

A. Review goals of unit in order to guide the children in bringing out the important learnings.

Working with Children:

A. Ask children to make generalizations about what we have learned about younger and older relationships.

B. Teacher write statements in front of class.

General Problems and Teacher Technique Points in Summarizing Unit:

A. Teaching children to make generalizations is an important part of elementary school training in all curriculum areas. It is also difficult many times to teach children to generalize. We have crystallized a few notions that might be useful in developing teacher's skills in getting children to make generalizations about the concept of relationships between olders and youngers.

1. Teacher may bring up a cause and have children think of the effect.

   Example: "What happened when...."

2. Refer to a specific skit.

   a. "Think of the specimen - what did we learn from it?"
   b. "Think of the specimen you were in. What did it show?"

3. If the child's point is not clear, ask him to elaborate further. (If the child works long enough at it, a clear cut statement may evolve.)

4. Refer children to one of the acted alternatives: ask what was different there from the specimen.

5. If a child's contribution does not seem to be relevant, ask him to try and connect it to the concept of youngers and olders.

   Example: "That's a good point; what does that have to do with relationships between youngers and olders."

6. Teacher may read over generalizations already made. This may inspire new thoughts.

B. Some examples of generalizations about olders and youngers are:

   1. It makes you feel important to help someone.

   2. You feel friendly toward people who are friendly toward you.

   3. All big kids don't like to tease and all little kids aren't pests.

   4. It's okay to explain that you can't help when you have something else to do.

C. Refer to chart containing goals prepared in Phase I. Place each of the generalizations with the pertinent goal. Review what concepts have been covered adequately and what concepts the children have missed.

Phase IX Utilizing Social Science Resources

Teacher Pre-planning

A. The teacher may wish to prepare substantive material to present to the class about relationships between older and younger children. Phase A of this unit contains explanations of conceptual models: The Force Field and the Circular Process. If the teacher wishes to introduce these models to the class, she can prepare material from these explanations. She may also wish to make a force field analysis of the behavioral specimen as a class project.

B. Research that has been conducted in the area of relationships between olders and youngers:

The teacher may prepare dittos for reading material for children from the following pages.

Generally, a fourth grader can read this material with help on some of the new social science vocabulary terms. Some of the terminology may be discussed before the children begin reading.

C. Class Research Projects:

The reading material suggests to the children that they conduct some of the research that has been explained. The teacher may decide beforehand whether she wants to include this. The suggestions are:

1. Setting up observation teams to watch children's playmate selection during a recess period.
2. Conducting a survey of how olders and youngers feel about each other using questionnaires.

NOTE: The following material is obtained from the unpublished work of Lohman, J. and Lohman, A., from the National Training Laboratories Day Camp in Bethel, Maine. The researchers may be reached at the Institute for Social Research, Ann Street Annex, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

Social Scientists Ask Questions

You have been studying about the ways that older and younger children act and feel toward each other. A number of social scientists have been interested in the same thing. Pretend that you are a social scientist. Your job is to *describe* how younger and older children act and feel toward each other. In order to begin your job as a social scientist, what is the first thing that you must do? First, you must make sure you know what you are looking for. You must ask some questions and then you try to find the answers to those questions. What is one question that you have about older and younger children? ____

____

Social scientists have also asked some questions. Here are some questions they have asked about older and younger children. They wanted to know: Do children play more with children their own age, with older children or with younger children? What do older and younger children like about each other? What do older and younger children dislike about each other?

How the Social Scientists Found the Answers to the Questions

The first thing they had to do was to find a group of children to study. The social scientists went to a day camp in Maine that had fifty children. The children were from four years old to twelve years old. There they did two things. First, they *observed* or watched whom children chose for playmates. Second, they took a *survey*, asking the children what they liked and what they disliked about older and younger children.

Why don't you make some guesses about what they found out? Then we'll compare your guesses with what the scientists found. When the scientists observed the children choose playmates, they were trying to answer this question:

Do children play more with children the same age, older, or younger?

Write your guess about what they found here______________

____

Don't worry about being right or wrong; this is only your guess.

Social Scientists Report the Answer to the Question

In order to find out with whom the children played, the social scientists observed the children while they were playing. They observed the children for fifteen minutes during different parts of the camp day. The social scientists divided them into "youngers," "middlers" and "olders." Those whom the scientists called "youngers" were 4-6 years old. The children that were "middlers" were 6-10 years old. The children that the scientists called "olders" were 10-12 years old. Which group do you fall into, "younger," "middler" or "older"?______________________________

Remember that in this study a 12 year old was always an older. That's because 12 year olds were the oldest children at this camp. In places other than this camp would a 12 year old always be an "older"? Of course not. There would 13 and 14 year olds and other older people around. That would make him younger.

At the camp a 4 year old was always a younger. In other places would a 4 year old always be younger? Why not? Certainly he wouldn't be a younger with a 3 year old.

After the social scientists had observed the children for a long time, they found out which group the youngers, middlers, and olders played with most. The social scientists put their answer into a table. This kind of table is not a piece of furniture. It is a table which shows the answers to some questions.

Each number in Table I shows how many times out of a hundred that an older, middler or younger played with another older, middler or younger. Table I shows how it was at this camp.

Point to Table I. Find the word "older" listed at the side of the table. Look at the first number: 50. That tells you that an older played with another older 50 times out of a hundred. See the mark next to the number: %. The mark means per cent. Another way of saying 50 times out of a hundred is to say 50 per cent.

Look at the next number: 43%. That tells you that an older played with a middler 43 times out of a hundred or 43 per cent of the time. Look at the next number: 7%. That tells you that an older played with a younger 7 times out of a hundred or 7 per cent of the time. You will have to look carefully to find the answers to the questions.

Table I

	Amount of Time Played with		
	Olders	Middlers	Youngers
Olders	50%	43%	7%
Middlers	26%	60%	14%
Youngers	11%	44%	45%

Let's look at Table I and find out what it means.

1. What per cent of the time did older children play with older children?__________
2. What per cent of the time did middlers play with middlers?
____
3. What per cent of the time did youngers play with youngers?
____
4. What per cent of the time did olders play with middlers?__________
youngers?__________
5. What per cent of the time did middlers play with olders?__________
youngers?__________
6. What per cent of the time did youngers play with middlers?
__________ olders?__________
7. Who did olders play with the most?________________
8. Who did middlers play with the most?________________
9. Who did youngers play with the most?________________

Now let's answer the question asked by the social scientist.

"Do children play more with children the same age, older children or younger children?"______________________________

Is that the answer you guessed?

Social Scientists Answer Another Question

Now the scientists knew who children played with the most. Each age group played with its own age most. Next they wanted to find out what older and younger children liked about each other and what they disliked about each other.

To find the answer, the scientists made a survey. They asked the children some questions about what they liked and what they disliked. These are the questions the social scientists asked the children. There is a space after each question for you to write your guess about the way you think most of the children answered. Then we'll compare your guess with what the scientists found.

Write the answers the way you think most of the children answered.

What do children, who are of different ages, like or dislike about each other?

1. When you are with children who are younger than you, what are some things they do that you don't like?____________________
____

2. When you are with children who are older than you, what are some things they do that you don't like?____________________
____

3. When you are with children who are younger than you, what are some things they do that you like?____________________
____

4. When you are with children who are older than you, what are some things they do that you like?____________________
____

Social Scientists Report Their Answers

In studying about what children who are of different ages like or dislike about each other, the social scienitsts got answers from all fifty children at the camp. They found out that:

1. Youngers did not like olders to be mean and bossy.
2. Youngers liked olders to be helpful and to let youngers play with them.
3. Olders disliked youngers who always want to tag around; they disliked pesty children.
4. Olders liked youngers when they could help them; it made the olders feel good to help the youngers.

How does your guess compare with what the social scientists found?

What Have Other Social Scientists Said?

Not very many social scientists have tried to answer these questions about younger and older children so we don't know for sure if this is a correct description for children in other schools and towns. It would be interesting to find out what answers other social scientists will find to these questions. Maybe they will find different facts about other children. Perhaps you could be a young social scientist and find out whom children choose for playmates. Perhaps you could observe this on the playground during recess. In order to find out how children feel about older and younger children you could take a survey. You could ask the other children in your classroom what they think. Maybe you could ask the students in other classrooms to answer the questions, too. Do you think you would find the same kinds of answers that the social scientists found? If you do not find out the same things that the social scientist found at the camp, try to think why your results are different. For instance, you may find in your neighborhood that younger children play with older children more than they play with younger children. Why could this be true? This may be because there are only two younger children to choose as playmates while there are many older children. You must remember that the camp had 50 children with many children who were young, middle and older. The children in the camp had a large choice of playmates. Your neighborhood may not have such a large choice of playmates. The table shows us, however, that if there is a large choice of playmates children will more often play with other children who are the same age.

What is a theory?

We have done the first job of the social scientists. We have described how things are. We know that children play mostly with other children the same age. We have discovered some of the reasons olders and youngers like and dislike each other. Now we must do the second part of the job of the social scientists. We must give an explanation; we must tell why this is true. Remember social science answers "why" questions about people. The questions we need to answer now are:

1. Why do children play mostly with other children the same age?
2. Why do youngers dislike olders when they are bossy?
3. Why do olders dislike youngers when they are pesty?
4. Why do youngers like olders when they are helpful?
5. Why do olders like youngers when they can help them?

There are no sure answers to these questions. There have been no experiments to find the answers to these questions. When social scientists do not find out the answers by doing an experiment, they make a guess; they try to figure out why by thinking about it. They make up an explanation that they think might be right. This explanation is called a theory. A theory is an idea about why something is the way it is. You probably have many theories about many things. You probably even have a theory about why children mostly play with other children the same age. Take some time in your classroom and see what theory you can make up about why children play with other children the same age. Then we will see if your theory sounds like the theory of the social scientists.

People like other people if they both like the same things. For example, if you are a baseball fan probably you have chosen some friends who are also baseball fans. If you like to play hopscotch and to roller skate, probably you have chosen some friends who like to do that also. That is true with adults, too. If your parents like to talk about things, probably they have chosen friends who also like to talk about things. People are friends wih people who like the same things. Does this sound like your theory?

Why do children play mostly with other children the same age?

The same age children have many of the same kinds of interests. Ten year olds like many of the same things and eight year olds like other things. When a ten year old and an eight year old like the same thing they play together. Now what happens when they play together? Sometimes they like one another and sometimes they don't like each other. See if you can make up a theory about why youngers dislike bossy olders and why olders dislike pesty youngers.

Why do youngers and olders dislike each other?

We have learned that older and younger children dislike each other when olders are bossy and youngers are pesty. Why is that?

When one person is bossing the other person it means that both people do not agree on what they want. One person wants to do something and the other person wants to do something different. Why do youngers think that olders are bossy? If a younger child is being bossed by an older he begins to get the idea that being older means bossing younger children around. He may even act bossy to children that are younger than he. He may think all olders are bossy. Let's pretend that you have an older sister. Her name is Mary. Mary sometimes tells you what to do and is pretty bossy at times. Your sister Mary has a friend named Susan. Probably, you think Susan is bossy too because she is an older, like Mary. You may begin to think that all olders are bossy just because you know one older, Mary, who sometimes is bossy. Maybe Susan asks you to do something for her one day. She is not really being bossy, but you think to yourself, "Boy, just like Mary! I knew she would be bossy."

Olders dislike youngers because they say that youngers are pesty. Why do olders think this? The older and younger do not agree on what they want (have similar interests). For example, when an older wants to go someplace with friends of his he may not want his smaller brother or sister to go along with him. The smaller one wants to go. They do not have the same interests at this time. The older wants to be with his friends and the younger wants to do what the older is doing. Why do olders think that many youngers are pesty? For the same reason that many youngers think olders are bossy. Perhaps you have a little brother that sometimes wants to tag along where you go. He doesn't always want to tag along. He probably doesn't want to tag along when he is doing something that he likes to do. Because you think that he is pesty you maybe think that all other smaller kids are pesty.

Why do older and younger children like each other?

Olders and youngers like each other when the olders are being helpful and the youngers are being helped. They are doing something that both of them want to do. You probably chose to play with older or younger children when both of you are interested in the same things. For instance, let's pretend that you are a ten year old and that you like to collect model airplanes. You probably want to find someone that would also like to play with model airplanes. Maybe that person is your next door neighbor and he is seven. You ask him over to play and you find out that he has a brand new model to put together. Remember he is only seven so he can't read all of the directions very well. Both of you are interested in doing the same thing, putting the model together, so you are friendly with one another. He likes you, as an older, because you will help him read the directions and you like him, as a younger, because you feel good helping him.

Summary

We choose friends who like the same kinds of things that we like. You may have one best friend, but you usually have other friends also. If you collect stamps or pictures you may have a friend who is interested in doing that. If you like marbles you may have a friend who also likes marbles. You may have a friend who likes to play outdoors most of the time. We have many different things that we are interested in, and we choose people for friends who are interested in some of the same things. Olders and youngers do not always have the same interests, but when they do like to do the same things they are friendly.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the first thing you must do as a social scientist if you want to find out about something?

2. What did the social scientists want to find out when they observed the children at play?

3. You are both an older and a younger. How can you be both?

4. Why do children play with other children the same age? You may give your theory instead of the social scientists' theory if you wish.

5. Give an explanation of why we sometimes think that all younger children are pesty.

PHASE X DETERMINE RELEVANCE TO OTHER SITUATIONS

Teacher Pre-Planning:

A. Have list of generalizations in view.

B. Prepare activity for Phase X (see Working with Children below).

Working with Children:

It might be profitable if this phase were extended out in time to constantly remind the students of the learnings from this unit. The following is a list of suggested possibilities that teachers may use. Some may be used within the sequence of phases as well as after the unit is completed. After completing the unit perhaps one period each week could be devoted to Olders and Youngers and its relevance in the lives of the children.

A. Class discussions of examples of relationships between olders and youngers in the lives of the children. Children may relate how they acted and what they observed in the situation and the class may propose other alternatives of action.

B. Refer to list of generalizations made in Phase VIII and see if children can relate these learnings to specific situations.

C. Role play examples of interactions between olders and youngers, to see how they acted in the situation. The role playing could be of three types:

1. Children all work together as a class and make suggestions for the situation at hand.

2. Break up into smaller groups and each group thinks of a situation involving olders and youngers to present.

3. The whole class works on one problem; they break up into small groups and present alternative courses of action. However, this should be done only if a great majority of the class is involved with the problem being discussed. (Example: Children from an older grade do not let younger children play with them on the playground.)

D. A situation written about older and younger relationships by each child and the endings be proposed by other children.

E. Field Work -- activities designed to provide the children with further understanding, experience and skills in relating to older and younger children. A few examples are:

1. Older children serve as academic tutors for younger children in a lower grade -- drill in arithmetic and spelling, assistance in reading, etc.

2. Older children to serve as interviewers and recorders for younger children when the teacher administers the diagnostic or post-unit instrument.

3. Older children to act as discussion leaders or recorders for groups of younger children.

4. Children plan and carry out plan for what to do in situations involving older or younger children. They report back what happens.

F. Observation experience -- children observe interactions between olders and youngers on the playground, in the neighborhood or in the home and record what occurred for discussion in class.

Problems and Teacher Technique Points:

A. This area is extremely important in all aspects of education. Children need help and guidance in relating learnings to their own lives. The teacher should constantly be aware of methods to help bridge the gap between content and its meaning to the child.

B. Teacher may also want to discuss with her children that they may try new things and still not produce the desired results. She may want to emphasize how important it is to keep on trying; changes do not occur overnight.

C. If field work experience for children is anticipated, the teacher should spend time briefing children about what to expect and providing guidance in helping children to develop necessary skills for the particular experience chosen.

PHASE XI EVALUATION OF UNIT

Teacher Pre-Planning:

A. Refer back to Phase I for administration and scoring of pre- and post-unit instrument.

B. Plan evaluation tools specific to own classroom purposes. (See Working with Children and Teacher Technique Points.)

C. The teacher may wish to keep an annotated record throughout and/or after the unit about instances of interaction between olders and youngers in the class room. Whenever an instance arises of interaction between olders and youngers, the teacher may wish to record the children's responses. Examples such as interaction with the Safety Patrol, olders and youngers playing on the playground, etc.

Working with Children:

A. Administer post unit instrument.

B. Present unit evaluation form. The following are some suggested possibilities that the teacher may use in the evaluation of the unit.

1. Post Meeting Reaction Sheet. A PMR may be given to the children to find out how they felt about the unit per se. Questions such as the following may be asked:

************* *********

1. Do you think it was good to study about interaction between olders and youngers?
2. What part did you like the best? Why?
3. What part did you like the least? Why?
4. What was the most important thing that you learned?
5. Do you think that other classes should learn about this also? Why?
6. Do you think it would be a good idea to study about another question? What would you like to study about?

************ *********

The types of questions asked on the PMR would depend on the kinds of information the teacher wanted to receive about the unit. She should only ask those questions that she is interested in - she should not ask evaluative questions unless she is going to use the information that the children give her.

C. Content questionnaire. This instrument would be given to measure the content learned. The following list of questions are recommended for this unit:

1. Write a short story about an older child and a younger child
    a. Describing why they will probably want to get together again after being with each other.
    b. Describing why after being with each other they would probably not want to get together again.

    For older children the teacher might ask them to diagram the causal sequence as the have done in Phase V,

2. Here is a story about an older and a younger child.

    Mary rushed home from school and burst into the house. She wanted permission to have Susan come over and play with her until supper time. She asked her mother as nicely as possible for her mother was very busy sewing the new curtains for the living room. Mother did say it was alright! Right then the phone rang. Mary knew it was Susan, that was their plan. It must be alright with Susan's mother. Mary answered the phone and said, "It's ok with my mother too. See you in a little while." Mary had been rushing around so fast she hadn't even said hello to her little sister, Jane. Jane had been home from school for two days with a cold. She was fine now but she was very lonely. Mary was at Susan's last night so Jane didn't have anyone to play with. She came up to Mary very timidly and asked, "May I play with you and Susan too?"

    a. Write two ways the story might end.
    b. Which ending do you prefer?
    C. Tell all of the reasons why that ending is the one you like better.

3. List the ways you act when you are with somebody at least three years younger/older than you that is the same as the way somebody who is at least three years older/younger than you acts when he is with you.

4. What does it mean to be "bigger" than somebody else? List all the things you can think of.

APPENDIX B

UTILIZING SOCIAL SCIENCE RESOURCES--
Examples of Material Re-Written for Children Taken from the Unit on "Angry Feelings"

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Appendix B

PHASE IX UTILIZING SOCIAL SCIENCE RESOURCES

Teacher Pre-Planning:

A. The teacher may now wish to prepare some substantive material to present to the children about anger. You may refer to Phase A to present the different causes of anger and the Diagrams about anger. Be sure to clarify the meanings of frustration, conflict of wills and conflict of interests. You may wish to have the children reflect over the different role playing situations and categorize them under one of the three causes of anger.

B. Prepare dittos for reading material. The following pages are written for the children. Generally, a fourth grade reader can read the material with help on some of the new social science vocabulary terms. The teacher may wish to discuss some of this terminology before the children begin reading.

Obviously the experiments are simplified for the children; if you, the teacher wish to read more about them you may refer to:

Sherif, M., et.al, Intergroup Conflict and Cooperation; The Robbers Cave Experiment, Institute for Group Relations, The University of Oklahoma, 1961.

Barker, R., Dembo, T., Lewin, K., Frustration and Regression--An Experiment with Young Children, University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare, Iowa City, Iowa, 1941, 18, no.1.

Also small portions of this study may be found in the second edition of Mussen, P., Conger, J., Kagan, J., Child Development and Personality, and in other books of readings in Child Development or Social Psychology.

WHAT ARE SOCIAL SCIENTISTS?

You have been studying about angry feelings. You have learned that many different things can cause angry feelings and you have tried different kinds of things to do when angry feelings arise. It is important for you to study about anger so you can understand yourself and other people. All of us are curious about why people sometimes act the way they do. You have heard your parents or your teachers wondering why people do certain things. They too, want to find out more about people. Children and adults have many "why" questions about people. The one we are trying to answer is "Why do people get angry?" Science tries to answer these "why" questions. You know that science has answered many "why" questions about the earth on which we live and about the space that is all around our earth. The kinds of scientists who try to answer such questions are physical scientists. The kinds of scientists who try to answer "why" questions about people are called social scientists. While you have been studying about anger you have been doing many things that a social scientist does. You have been trying to answer "why" questions about anger just as the social scientist does. There are many kinds of social scientists,your teacher can help you pronounce some of the names. You probably have heard of some of them. Some kinds of social scientists are psychologists, sociologists, anthropologists and social psychologists. The main difference between these social scientists is that some study about only one person and others study about groups of people. Can you name the kind of social scientist who studies about one person? That is a psychologist. The kinds of social scientists who study about large groups of people, such as cities and nations, are the sociologists and anthropologists. Social psychologists study about individual people and small groups such as classrooms and clubs.

WHY DO SOCIAL SCIENTISTS STUDY ABOUT ONE PERSON?

We all know that there are many different people in the world. No two people are exactly the same. People learn different things and they often think about things very differently. Think about your classroom and how many different kinds of people there are. Let's think of how many ways people in your classroom are different from one another. First, everyone looks different. Some have blond hair; others have brown, black or red hair. Some have blue eyes; others brown. Some are tall; some are short. Some have dark skin; others light. Some children can do arithmetic very well; others can read well. Some are very good at sports; some can play a good game of marbles. There are some who are happy and gay and laugh a lot. There are some who are your good friends and others with whom you are not really friendly. You have different homes and different parents. There are many ways that you are different from everybody else. You may even think very differently about the same thing. All of you have studied about anger. Some of you may think it was fun and you liked it a lot. Some of you may think it was not so good. Remember your discussions about Sam and Joe? Probably many of you thought different things about what they should do. Why do people think so differently from each other? Psychologists and social pscyhologists try to answer that question. It is not an easy question, but it is an important question. It is important so that we can better understand ourselves and others.

WHY DO SOCIAL SCIENTISTS STUDY ABOUT GROUPS OF PEOPLE?

We have talked about how we are all different from one another but there are also many ways in which we are alike. One way in which we are alike is that we are all members of groups. Your family is one group. Your school and your town are another group. Your classroom is a group; you are all members of your classroom group. Your classroom is a different group from the one next door. Can you think of ways in which you are like the other people in your classroom? You have the same teacher, the same room, the same grade number and many other things. Many times the people in the same group think the same way as other people in that group. Some groups of people in India, for instance, think it is very bad to kill a cow. The people in this group are called Hindus. One group of people in the United States think that the government ought to be run one way and another group thinks it ought to be run another way. These groups are called Republicans and Democrats. Some groups of people have to hunt animals for their food. They think it is very good to teach young boys to hunt. There are many more different groups in the world. Sociologists, anthropologists, and social psychologists try to answer questions about these groups. They try to answer questions because it is important to understand why groups of people think and act certain ways.

HOW DO SOCIAL SCIENTISTS ANSWER QUESTIONS?

Because there are so many different people and many different groups we often get many answers to questions we ask. One person thinks one way and another person thinks another way. One group thinks one way and another group thinks another way. Different people and different groups often see things differently from one another. There is a very famous poem by Carl Sandburg which tells about three different men looking at the same elephant. One man sees how much work it is to care for an elephant; he wonders how much food it eats, and how much it weighs. Another man looks at it and sees something different. He sees what a wonderful animal it is and how pretty and large it is. The third man sees how strong the elephant is. The three men all looked at the same elephant at the same time and they saw different things about the elephant. We all see the moon at night. Sometimes when you are looking at the moon with other people around, ask them what they see. Their answers may surprise you. They may not see the same things you see. The scientists who looks at the moon looks at it in a special way to find out everything that he can. He may use certain instruments, such as a telescope, and he may conduct experiments. He is not content with one experiment. He tries many of them. If all the experiments tell him the same thing then he has found the answers to some questions. Other scientists do the same kinds of experiments. Agreement among scientists is very important. One way you could find out the color of the moon is to conduct an experiment asking many people, "What color is the moon?" If they all said that it was yellow there would be agreement and you could be pretty sure that the moon was yellow. If some people said the moon was orange, some said it was gold and others said red, you would not be sure about the color of the moon and your question would not be answered. There must be agreement. The social scientist does the same kind of thing. He does not look at the moon, however. He looks at people and at groups of people and asks questions about them. He does not try to answer the questions himself; he uses the scientific method to get the answers to his questions. You are now going to read what social scientists have found out about the questions "What makes people or groups of people angry?" There are two experiments which help answer this question.

THE ROBBERS CAVE EXPERIMENT

by Dr. Sherif (Shur ĕf) and others

WHAT WAS THIS EXPERIMENT ABOUT?

Dr. Sherif and other social scientists wanted to find out why two groups of boys disliked each other; why they fought and called each other names. The social scientists wanted to find out what would make the two groups of boys get along well with each other.

They asked two questions. You write the two questions on the lines below:

1. Dr. Sherif and other social scientists wanted to find out

____

____

2. They also wanted to find out______________________________

____

To find out how they answered these two questions read further.

HOW DID THE SOCIAL SCIENTISTS ANSWER THE TWO QUESTIONS?

Dr. Sherif and the other social scientists went to a summer camp for 11-12 year old boys in Oklahoma. The camp was near a famous hideaway of Jesse James. Can you guess why it was called, "The Robbers Cave Experiment?" The boys at the camp had come from all over the United States and none of them knew each other beforehand. When each boy got to the camp he was assigned to one group; he became a "Rattler" or an "Eagle". The Rattlers all lived and ate together in one place and the Eagles all lived and ate together in another place. There were a lot of things to do at the camp such as hiking, swimming, cook-outs and games to play. The social scientists began their experiment after all the boys were settled and were familiar with the camp.

For the beginning part of the summer the Rattlers and Eagles always played against each other in games. They played baseball, touch football, tug-of-war, and other games. The Rattlers were always on one team and the Eagles were always on the other team. Almost all of the games they played were competitive and they never switched sides. Since the Rattlers and the Eagles slept and ate apart they did not talk much with each other except in the games. What happened? During this part of the camp the Rattlers and Eagles did not get along very well together. When they played they would call each other names and be mad at one another. If the Rattlers won they would tease the Eagles and the Eagles would get very mad about it. If the Eagles won the Rattlers were sore losers. One time when the Eagles lost, they stole the flag of the Rattlers and they burned it. When a member of the Rattlers was asked who he liked, he said that he liked all of the Rattlers but he didn't like any of the Eagles. Can you guess what the Eagles said when they were asked who they liked? You are right; they liked the Eagles but none of the Rattlers. The experimenters now knew that they had two groups of boys that were almost always angry at each other. The boys did not work or play well together; it always ended up with a Rattler or an Eagle fighting. They had two hostile or angry groups of boys.

Have you ever been on a team and thought that the guys on the other side were not so good? Maybe you didn't like them very much during the game but they were your friends at other times. How would you feel if another person always wanted the same thing you wanted and only one of you could have it? You probably wouldn't like that person very much. That is how it was with the Rattlers and the Eagles. They both always wanted the same thing and had to work against each other because only one group could have it.

The experimenters now wanted to know how they could get these two groups of boys to be friendly with one another. They tried two different things. First, they thought if they could plan fun things for the

Rattlers and the Eagles to do together, they might become more friendly. The scientists planned movies, cook-outs and other things that both groups wanted to do. The new activities were not competitive. What happened? The Rattlers and the Eagles still fought with each other; they called each other names and would not be friendly. The Rattlers always wanted to sit with other Rattlers and the Eagles always wanted to sit with other Eagles. Then the scientists tried something else. The second thing they did was to have things begin happening at the camp. First the boys were told that the water supply was broken down and all the boys had to fix it. The Rattlers and the Eagles had to pitch in and work together; otherwise they would have no water. The next thing that happened was that a truck which was carrying their food to a cook-out broke down. It was a big heavy truck and needed every bit of muscle to tow it to the lake. The Rattlers and Eagles had to work together to get the truck to the lake so they could have their dinner. Another time the boys were told that they could not have any more movies because the camp had run out of money and could not rent a film. The scientists told the boys that if they wanted to help raise the money they could have movies again. So, the Rattlers and the Eagles had to work together again to raise money so they could rent more movies. In all of these things the Rattlers and the Eagles had to cooperate to get what they wanted, they had to work together.

What happened? At first, especially when they fixed the water supply, there was still quite a lot of fighting. After working together many times they became friendlier. After they had done many things cooperatively they became quite friendly with each other. Toward the end of the camp when the Rattlers and Eagles were asked who they like some of the Rattlers liked some of the Eagles and some of the Eagles liked some of the Rattlers. Now they played games together without fighting or calling each other names.

THE ANSWER TO THE QUESTIONS.

1. Why were the Rattlers and Eagles always mad at one another at the beginning of camp?

> Both the Rattlers and the Eagles wanted the same thing. Only one group could get what they both wanted. They saw each other most of the time only when they were against each other. The Rattlers were against the Eagles and the Eagles were against the Rattlers. Because they were against each other so much of the time they were against each other even during movies and swimming and other things.

2. What made the Rattlers and the Eagles friendlier with each other?

> Again they both wanted the same thing. They wanted to get the water working, to get the truck to the lake and to be able to rent movies. This time, however, they could not get what they wanted by being against each other. They had to cooperate, to work together to get what both groups wanted. Because they now cooperated on a lot of things and were happy with each other, they were friendlier at other times.

Answer these questions from what you have learned from the Robbers Cave Experiment.

1. If you play a competitive sport, like baseball, or football, why would it be a good idea to change the teams around?

2. If you were a boy scout or a girl scout and needed to raise money with another troop for a trip:

Why would you set up a contest with the other troop to see who could raise the most money?

Why would you plan to raise the money together?

Which one would you like to do best? Why do you like that one better than the other one?

3. If there were two groups of little kids on your block that were always fighting with each other, what could you do to make them play better together?

FRUSTRATION IN YOUNG CHILDREN

by Dr. Barker, Dr. Dembro and Dr. Lewin

WHAT WAS THIS EXPERIMENT ABOUT?

We have learned before that frustration may be one of the causes of anger. This experiment by Dr. Barker, Dr. Dembro and Dr. Lewin shows us what happened to 30 children between the ages of 2 and 5 when they were frustrated. The social scientists wanted to find out how the children would act when they could not do what they wanted to do; when they were frustrated. The question is:____

HOW DID THE SOCIAL SCIENTISTS ANSWER THIS QUESTION?

The social scientists put the children in a room with toys and watched how they played. The social scientists observed the way that the children acted just as you observed the skit about Sam and Joe. The scientists watched thirty different children at two different times. The first time was free play time. This time they gave a child a nice new set of pretty toys. The scientists watched the child for half an hour to see if the child acted happy, unhappy or angry. How do you think most of the children acted? Write your guess here______________________________. The scientists then took the pretty toys away and put them behind a glass window. The child could see the toys but he could not play with them. The second time was the frustration time; the child was given another set of toys. These toys were not so nice or pretty. The child could see the nice set of toys but the window was in his way. He could only play with the not-so-nice toys. Again, the scientists watched for half an hour to see if the child acted happy, unhappy or angry. How do you think most of the children acted the second time? Write your guess here____.

THE WAYS THE CHILDREN ACTED.

All of the children did not act the same. We know each child is a different person and may show happiness, unhappiness, or anger in many ways. Feelings of happiness were shown by singing, laughing or smiling. Feelings of unhappiness were shown by crying, whimpering or complaining. Feelings of anger were shown by kicking, yelling or sucking their thumb.

THE ANSWER TO THE QUESTION.

The social scientists found the answers to their questions. You probably have some guesses of your own. Let's see if you are right. Below is what is called a table. This is not a table that is a piece of furniture, but a table which shows the answers to questions. You must look at it carefully to find out if your guesses are correct. Remember there were thirty children in the experiment.

	Showed Mostly Happy Feelings	Showed Mostly Unhappy Feelings	Showed Mostly Anger	Total
Free Play Time	28	2	0	30
Frustration Time	3	14	13	30

Let's find out what this table means.

1. During Free Play Time how many children
   showed mostly happy feelings? _________
   showed mostly unhappy feelings?_________
   showed mostly angry feelings?_________
2. During Frustration Time how many children
   showed mostly happy feelings?_________
   showed mostly unhappy feelings?_________
   showed mostly angry feelings?_________
3. At what time were most of the children happy?_______________
4. At what time were most of the children angry?_______________
5. Why do you think there were more unhappy and angry children during the frustration time?

Appendix C - Sample Cross-Age Instruments

1. Cross-Age Questionnaire
2. Cross-Age Interview and Sociometric
3. Check List of Learnings
   (Excerpt from end of camp interview)

CROSS-AGE

Your number ________________

Grade ____________________

School ____________________

1. Which older child do you spend the most time with or do the most things with?

   ____, age __________

2. Which child who is your age do you spend the most time with or do the most things with?

   ____, age __________

3. Which younger child do you spend the most time with or do the most things with?

   ____, age __________

4. If you could change yourself into any child you know who is OLDER than you who would you like to be or to be like?

   ____, age __________

   I would like to be him or her because

5. What child who is older than you would you most like to have like you?

   ____, age __________

What would you have to do to get them to like you more?

6. Which older child do you like to have help you most when you need help?

    ____, age ________

    How does he or she help you?

7. Who younger than you do you give the most help to when he or she needs it?

    ____, age ________

    How do you help him or her?

8. Who younger than you do you wish would act most different from how they act now?

    ____, age ________

    How do you wish they would act that is different from the way they do act?

9. Who older than you do you wish would act most different from how they act now?

____, age __________

How do you wish they would act that is different from the way they do act?

10. After school I play mostly with older children __________________________

After school I play mostly with younger children ________________________

After school I play mostly with children my own age _____________________

After school I mostly play by myself ___________________________________

11. If I could be any age I would most like to be __________________________

years old because ____

Form II: Sociometric Interview

Name of Child ______________________ Y, YM, OM, O (Circle one)

Interviewer ______________________ Date ______________________

Question 1: When you are with children who are littler (smaller) than you are, what are some of the things they do that you don't like?

What are some things they do that you like?

Question 2: When you are with children older than you are what are some of the things they do that you don't like?

What are some things they do that you like?

Now let's do something with these boxes and the pictures.

Arrange boxes child's left to right (++) (+) (0) (-) (--)
Arrange trays in appropriate order

Question 3: (a) Here are all the children a little older (younger) than you are. Look at all of them and pick out the one you would most like to be if you were that old, and put in this box here (++). The sign means you want very much to be like him (her).

Record choice ______________________

(b) Now pick out the one you wouldn't want to be at all, and put in this box here (--). The sign on the box means you don't want to be like him (her) at all.

Record choice ______________________

(c) Now we are going to put all the other campers here in these five boxes. Let me tell you what each box means then you can put them in just as fast as you want to.

++ you know this means want very much to be like him/her
+ this means want a little bit to be like him/her
0 this means I don't know him/her at all, so don't have any ideas about them.

- this means I don't want to be like him/her
-- this means I don't want to be like him/her at all

(encourage them to sort the photos quickly, checking to be sure they are clear on meaning of boxes) (can use extreme boxes again)

Record choices in each box:

++ ______________________________

+ ______________________________

0 ______________________________

- ______________________________

-- ______________________________

Question 4: (next tray) Here's another group of campers who are a different age.

(a) Which one would you most like to be if you were that old?

Record choice ____________________

(b) Which one would you not want to be like at all?

Record choice ____________________

(c) Now let's put all the others in the right boxes

Record: ++ ____________________

+ ____________________

0 ____________________

- ____________________

-- ____________________

Question 5: Now here's another bunch of the campers who are a different age (3rd tray)

(a) If you were that old which one would you like to be?

Record choice: ____________________

(b) Which one would you not want to be like at all?

Record choice: ____________________

(c) Now put all the others in the right boxes

Record: ++ ________________

+ ________________

0 ________________

- ________________

-- ________________

Question 6: Now here are the children your age. See, here you are.

(a) If you were going to be somebody else here, which of the other children here would you most like to be?

Record choice: ________________

(b) Which one wouldn't you want to be at all?

Record choice: ________________

(c) Now let's put the others in the right boxes

Record: ++ ________________

+ ________________

0 ________________

- ________________

-- ________________

Question 7: Now here are the grownups that work in camp.

If you were a grownup which one would you most like to be?

Record choice: ________________

Why would you most like to be like this grownup?

Question 8: (take pictures of 4 ++ choices) (do not use adult pictures)

(a) Here are the four campers you said you would most like to be like. If you could be anybody you wanted to be which one of these would you most like to be?

Record 1st choice ______________ Age group: __________

(b) Which is the one you'd want to be next?

Record choice ________________ Age group: __________

(c) And next?

Record choice ________________ Age group: __________

(d) Record remaining one

________________ Age group: __________

Question 9: Put out picutre of first ++ choice(from 8a)

(a) Here are some green cards. On each card is one reason other children have said why they would like to be somebody. Let's see if you can find the reasons why you would like to be him (her). Read them through quickly and if any card is a reason you would like to be him (her) put the card beside the picture. Put the other cards over here(pointing).

Record No. of reasons selected ____________________

(b) Is there some reason left out that is a reason you'd like to be him (her)?

____

(c) Now let's look at your reasons. Which one is the thing about him (her) that is the most important reason why you'd like to be him (her) if you were that age?

Record No. ______________________________

Question 10: Put out picture of (--) choice of same age level as above.

(a) Here is somebody the same age you said you would not like to be. Here are yellow cards with reasons other children have said why they would not like to be somebody. Read through and think which reasons are your own reasons for not wanting to be like him (her). Put your reasons here. Others over here.

Record reasons ______________________________

(b) Is some reason left out that is a reason you'd not like to be him (her) at all?

____

(c) Which is the biggest reason for not wanting to be him (her)?

No. of reason______________________________

Question 11: Put out picture of second (++) choice

(a) Here is the next person you wanted to be. What reasons are the right ones about him (her). Don't pick any that aren't about him (her).

Record reasons ______________________________

(b) Any other reason left out?

____

(c) Biggest reason?

____

Question 12: Picture of (--) choice of same age.

(a) Here is another one you said you wouldn't like to be. Which are the reasons for not wanting to be him (her)?

Reasons ______________________________

(b) Any other reason left out?

____

(c) Which is the biggest reason for not wanting to be him (her)?

____

Question 13: Third (++) choice

(a) Reasons you would like to be him (her)?

Reasons ______________________________

(b) Reason left out?

____

(c) Most important reason.

____

Question 14: Third (--) choice of same age as question 13.

(a) Reasons you would not like to be him (her)?

Reasons ______________________________

(b) Any reason left out?

____

(c) Most important reason?

Reason ____________________________________

Question 15: Fourth (++) choice

(a) Reasons

____

(b) Any reason left out?

____

(c) Most important reason?

____

Question 16: Final (--) choice

(a) Reasons

____

(b) Any reason left out?

____

(c) Most important reason?

____

Question 17: If you were not as old as you are now, how old would you most like to be? ____________________________________

(If adult level named: What age girl (boy) would you most want to be if not grownup)

Why would you like to be that age?

Thank you very much for helping us. Your ideas will help us a lot to make camps more fun for children.

Check List of Learnings
Excerpt From End of Camp Interview

Now that camp is nearly over, we'd like to get some help from you in thinking about what's happened. You can help us learn things about running camps better...Here are some things other children in another camp said they learned from being at camp. Maybe some of them are things you've learned. Let's see what you think. I'll read them and you tell me (a) "No", or (b) "Yes, a little", or (c) "Yes, a lot."

1. a b c
2. a b c
3. a b c
4. a b c
5. a b c
6. a b c
7. a b c
8. a b c
9. a b c
10. a b c
11. a b c
12. a b c
13. a b c
14. a b c
15. a b c
16. a b c
17. a b c
18. a b c
19. a b c
20. a b c
21. a b c

Check List of Learnings
(to be read aloud)

1. How to braid gimp.
*2. How to help shy children feel at home.
3. How to swim better.
*4. That everybody needs help at times.
*5. How to make people feel happier.
6. How to make new friends.
7. How to play new games.
*8. How to help younger children feel important.
*9. That older children like to be asked for help.
10. How to be friends with two people at the same time.
11. That everyone feels shy sometimes.
*12. That younger children can help older children.
13. How to make baskets.
14. How to share your ideas in a group discussion with different aged children.
*15. That counselors and teachers need help from children.
16. How to make a play from a story.
*17. That it is wise to ask for help.
18. That children sometimes say mean things to you because something has made them unhappy.
19. How to get along better with my family.
20. That sometimes I have very good ideas
*21. How to teach someone else something I can do better.

*Helper skills and attitudes